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A Journal of Investigation and Discussion in the Field of Library Science

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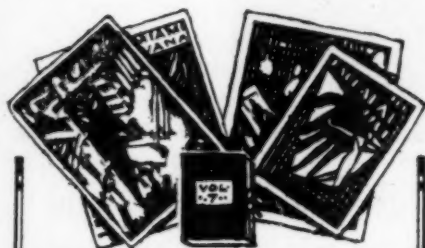
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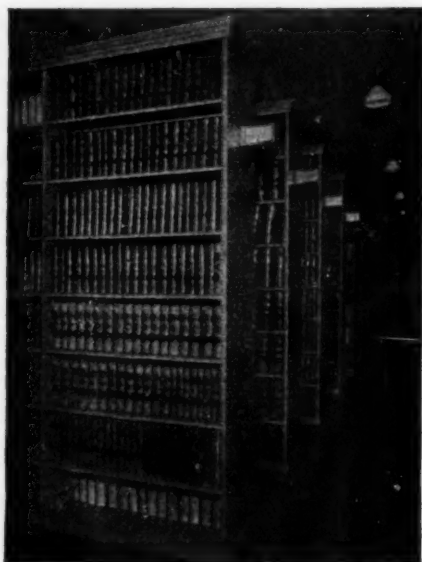
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THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

Volume I

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Number 1

THE PLACE OF RESEARCH IN LIBRARY SERVICE¹

RESEARCH: What attitude does the word evoke in the young library-school graduate? Is the emotional state produced pleasant or unpleasant, or a mixture of these two elementary reactions? If by means of some delicate instrument, or by some subtle skill, I could have the answer to that question at once, I should perhaps know whether to persist in following the manuscript I have prepared or whether I am likely to accomplish more for library service by throwing it aside and talking about anything that comes to mind. But I have not the delicate instrument nor the requisite skill, so well are your emotional responses controlled and directed. In other words, so hardened are you to occasions of this kind that you may even get some pleasure from the consciousness of doing your duty and seeing the thing through. Psychologists tell us that the unpleasant emotions are slower of arousal than the pleasant. If your emotions are of the former class I can only hope that they may be inhibited completely or that they will not produce the withdrawal response for at least thirty minutes.

I affect the language of the psychologist to confess at the outset that I have had some doubt as to the interest you may have in this subject, or, rather, in my ability to interest you in it—

¹ Address delivered at the Founder's Day Exercises, School of Library Science Western Reserve University, June 10, 1930.

no doubt at all as to its importance. Just as I was thinking I ought to make some such confession as this my eye chanced to fall upon a few lines in the recently published volume of Stephen Crane's *Collected poems* which are so appropriate that I must quote them.

There was a man with tongue of wood
Who essayed to sing,
And in truth it was lamentable.
But there was one who heard
The clip-clapper of this tongue of wood
And knew what the man
Wished to sing,
And with that the singer was content.

I shall be content if when I am through a few of you know or think you know what I have been trying to say.

In my talking and writing about library service and training for library service I have sometimes been accused of being dogmatic. Perhaps there is ground for the accusation, but I am inclined to adopt Chesterton's defense of being dogmatic. "The human brain," he says in his *Heretics*, "is a machine for coming to conclusions; if it cannot come to conclusions it is rusty," and he goes on to relate the story that somebody complained to Matthew Arnold that he was getting to be as dogmatic as Carlyle. "That may be true," said Arnold, "but you overlook an obvious difference. I am dogmatic and right, and Carlyle is dogmatic and wrong."

By the very nature of my daily occupation I am forced from time to time to try to evaluate the library profession and to compare its future with that of other professions. Young men and women are constantly asking, "What is the future of library service?" "Will it offer me a satisfactory career?" My answers to these questions are optimistic, not always positive, and, I hope, never dogmatic.

I think we have made some progress in the last decade, but it would be easy to overestimate both its amount and its significance. Development it seems to me has been too largely of a quantitative rather than of a qualitative character. Statistics

of use and of financial support of libraries show gratifying growth. Much has been heard of programs of adult education and of "reading with a purpose," but I am in some doubt as to whether libraries are doing their job much better than they did before the Great War. It is difficult to detect improvement in the professional status of the librarian. The demand for so-called trained assistants has increased notably in volume. The number of library schools and other training agencies has increased rapidly. Salaries, and at the same time the prestige, of the more important administrative positions have increased in a significant way, but for the rank and file little progress seems to be made in remuneration and in other evidences of satisfactory professional status. No, I do not find it easy to believe that libraries, with the exception perhaps of certain highly specialized types, are doing their jobs much better than they did ten or even twenty years ago; at all events not enough better that anyone should wax enthusiastic about the future.

If the library is to rise to its opportunity as a social institution and educational force it must, it seems to me, begin very soon to attack its problems by a thoroughgoing application of the spirit and methods of research that are being found so effective in every other field. In the natural sciences as well as in the humanistic and social sciences, in the applied sciences, in education, in business and industry, in social service—everywhere except in the library field—extensive programs of research are being carried out, highly organized and well financed.

Everyone is familiar with the great advances being made through scientific research in medicine, in aviation, in wireless communication, and in all lines of engineering. In business, research has come to be regarded as one of the most important factors of successful management. Large business corporations have their research departments as a matter of course. Personal qualities of intelligence, courage, and initiative are no longer a guaranty of business success. Efficiency of administration and quantity and quality of output are under the constant scrutiny of the research laboratory. Research programs are a most important consideration in the evaluation of corporate securities.

Mr. Edward A. Filene, of Boston, one of the leading merchants of the country, holds that American prosperity has been due largely to research—"to an application of the same scientific methods in the conduct of business as have been so successful in medicine, biology, physics and astronomy." American business, according to estimates quoted by Mr. Filene, is spending more than \$200,000,000 annually on research—\$70,000,000 through government and \$130,000,000 through commercial concerns, the largest of them employing thousands of scientists, engineers, statisticians, and other research workers. The modern business man no longer looks upon research with contempt.

In education as in business, research is playing an increasing rôle. Every large school system has its research department. Dr. John W. Withers, dean of the school of education of New York University, in a recent article asserts that

research service should be maintained for every school system regardless of its size. Scientific study is necessary everywhere in present day education. Mere personal opinion, however expert and experienced, is no longer sufficient. It is impossible to maintain an efficient modern school system without the aid of research and no American public school, urban or rural, should be without service of this kind.¹

Cities of 75,000 population or over he thinks should spend \$12,000 to \$100,000 a year on their own standard research organizations. For the smaller communities bureaus of research should be maintained in state departments of education, in colleges of education, in state universities, and in state normal schools and teachers' colleges. And these should be supplemented by similar bureaus in privately endowed colleges and universities.

This is not a mere dream. Something approximating Dean Withers' proposal is already in existence, as most of you know. Many journals are devoted to research in education. Books and monographs are published by the thousand, reporting the results of research. Perhaps it is being overdone. Perhaps the scientific and practical value of some of the output is not very great. Nevertheless, the net result of the whole movement is of tremendous significance.

¹ "The Scientific method in the study of education," *Journal of educational research*, March, 1930, p. 212.

What about research in the library field? A little sporadic work here and there by individuals that may possibly be classified as research. No organized or co-operative plans, or only the beginnings of such in two or three university library schools. No money appropriated anywhere, so far as I know, specifically for research in library service. Not a single person employed anywhere by a library or a library system to study problems of library service. No research fellowships. No research professorships.

Incredible? Yes, but true. Not a book or even a pamphlet devoted specifically to research in the field of library service. No journal in which reports of research studies can be published, except in brief and popularized form. One of the most hopeful indications that this condition may soon be remedied is the fact that the Carnegie Corporation has recently appropriated \$25,000 to assist in starting a new library journal to be edited and published at the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago. Will there be enough material worthy of publication to keep a quarterly journal going? In the years that the project has been under discussion it has been freely predicted by leading librarians that there will not be enough.

For the last three years I have asked the students in a second-year class in a library school to go systematically through the files of our professional journals for a long period of years and report any material which seemed to them to meet the minimum requirements of contributions to knowledge through original research. The paucity of such material has been startling. I am not condemning our professional journalism. In the main it seems to provide what the profession desires—current news of persons and events, a sprinkling of gossip, scraps of bibliographical and literary information, and addresses and papers sometimes interesting, sometimes informative, but almost never reporting results of scientific study.

Not infrequently I have been pessimistic enough about this situation to wonder whether there is any justification for using the term "library science." When the new library school was started at Columbia four years ago we evaded the question by

calling it a "school of library service." That there is such a thing as library service no one can doubt, and personally I do not doubt that it ought to be based on a library science, but I wish the scientific character of our professional activities and of our professional literature were more obvious.

Is there or can there be such a thing as library science? The answer will depend on our definition of science. Frederick Barry in his *Scientific habit of thought*, essaying a definition of science, says:

. . . . We classify business management, pugilism and medicine together as sciences because, though as occupations they are only incidentally related, they are all characterized by the practical, methodical, and so far as is humanly possible, the rational utilization of knowledge for the attainment of definite results. . . .

Any concern or occupation sufficiently important, purposive, practical, explicit and rational, which is based on knowledge or its pragmatic equivalent, is Science. This knowledge . . . may be the knowledge of natural phenomena either mechanical or vital, of emotion, will and thought, of human affairs; of ways and means, methods and procedures; of abstract relationships; of God.¹

In point of subject matter Barry would allow us a library science. On the basis of scientific attitude of mind I have a grave doubt as to whether we can at the present time claim to have anything more than an embryonic science. And my doubt is only made stronger as I read a little book by John Dewey entitled *The Sources of a science of education*, a careful reading of which I heartily recommend to you all. Try substituting "library science" for "science of education" in paragraph after paragraph and you will find you have an illuminating and inspiring treatise on the scientific basis of library service. He says:

Clearly, we must take the idea of science with some latitude. We must take it with sufficient looseness to include all the subjects that are usually regarded as sciences. The important thing is to discover those traits in virtue of which various fields are called scientific. When we raise the question in this way, we are led to put emphasis upon *methods* of dealing with subject-matter rather than to look for uniform objective traits in subject-matter. From this point of view, science signifies, I take it, the existence of systematic methods of inquiry, which, when they are brought to bear on a range of facts, enable us to

¹ *Op. cit.* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1927), pp. 5, 7.

understand them better and to control them more intelligently, less haphazardly and with less routine.

No one would doubt that our practices in hygiene and medicine are less casual, less results of a mixture of guess work and tradition, than they used to be, nor that this difference has been made by development of methods of investigating and testing. There is an intellectual technique by which discovery and organization of material go on cumulatively, and by means of which one inquirer can repeat the researches of another, confirm or discredit them, and add still more to the capital stock of knowledge. Moreover, the methods when they are used tend to perfect themselves, to suggest new problems, new investigations, which refine old procedures and create new and better ones.¹

I very much fear librarians do not qualify as scientists, whether we adopt Barry's criterion of "rational utilization of knowledge" or Dewey's "method of dealing with subject matter" and "intellectual technique." Barry² notes in this connection William James's famous classification of men into two types, the tough-minded and the tender-minded. The first

comprises those who find their greatest satisfaction in the prosecution of affairs: industrial and commercial, political, ecclesiastical or scientific. The other type constitutes the bulk of humanity, who discover in emotional appreciations—crude or refined, ingenuous or subtle, commonplace or exalted—a greater joy than in the exercise of the practical reason. This type finds its extreme representatives among adventurers, journalists, artists and musicians, prophets, poets and religious devotees . . . [and, I am tempted to add, librarians].

In common speech [to quote Barry a bit further] all tough-minded people (or better, perhaps, all people when they are tough-minded) are scientific; but not all, certainly, are scientists. This designation is reserved for those who make the search for new knowledge not only their business, loosely speaking, but strictly their profession and often their sole pre-occupation. [Their habit] provokes the investigation of facts alone and compels an ever-increasing development of rational acumen and unemotional detachment. The knowledge which it yields, rid of all its accidental characters, is now commonly called science. Even when these words are used carelessly or in error, they signify the belief or pretension that whatever is thus designated is, in fact, the outcome of rational and dispassionate investigation.

Another way of expressing a mild skepticism as to the genuineness of library science is to say that on the whole we tend to

¹ *Op. cit.* (New York: Horace Liveright, 1929), pp. 8-9.

² *Op. cit.*, pp. 8, 11.

be empirical in our thinking rather than scientific. I use the term "empirical" not perhaps in its strictest philosophical meaning, but to describe any action guided solely by experience. In the practice of medicine, for example, we may call a treatment empirical when we find it is followed because it has been found (or believed) to have been successful, although the reason for its efficacy is not known.

In this sense much of our library science is purely empirical. The average librarian is an empiricist, not a scientist. Most administrative practices and technical procedures are followed because they have been tried somewhere and have been found to work. What psychological or other principles are involved is unknown. The librarian's relation to his patrons has only an empirical basis. He has only an empirical knowledge of the attitude of readers toward library service, of why certain classes do not use the library, of the motives which bring people to the public library. The great weakness of the readers' adviser service is its total lack of scientific basis. I fear most teaching in library schools promotes rather than diminishes the empirical tendency. Quantitative studies are its greatest enemy, but probably not one librarian in a hundred has ever had training in quantitative methods.

I am not condemning empirical thinking and empirical methods. I am merely pointing out that they are not scientific and are rapidly being discarded in every other important field of knowledge and service. Dewey says in his little classic on scientific method, *How we think*, that empirical thinking

is fairly adequate in some matters, but is very apt to lead to false beliefs, and does not enable us to cope with the novel, and leads to laziness and presumption, and to dogmatism.

The *disadvantages* of purely empirical thinking are obvious.

1. While many empirical conclusions are, roughly speaking, correct; while they are exact enough to be of great help in practical life; . . . while, indeed, empirical observations and records furnish the raw or crude material of scientific knowledge, yet the empirical method affords no way of discriminating between right and wrong conclusions. Hence it is responsible for a multitude of *false* beliefs. . . .

. . . . Empirical inference follows the grooves and ruts that custom wears,

and has no track to follow when the groove disappears. . . . "Skill enables a man to deal with the same circumstances that he has met before, scientific thought enables him to deal with different circumstances that he has never met before." . . .

. . . Mental inertia, laziness, unjustifiable conservatism, are its probable accompaniments. Its general effect upon mental attitude is more serious than even the specific wrong conclusions in which it has landed. Whenever the chief dependence in forming inferences is upon the conjunctions observed in past experience, failures to agree with the usual order are slurred over, cases of successful confirmation are exaggerated. . . .¹

Now let us revert for a moment to the conclusion we reached above, that practically no research is being devoted to the problems of library service, in which respect it stands alone among the so-called sciences. What is the reason? You may infer from what I have just been saying that I attribute the absence of scientific research to the fact that librarians lack the scientific attitude, are tender-minded rather than tough-minded, think empirically rather than scientifically. No, that is not my conclusion. Both, it seems to me, are the results of a third fact. And what is that?

Can it be that there are no problems in library service that call for scientific research? Nothing more to learn? No unsolved problems? Is it to be classed with—what shall I say?—the activities of the street-car conductor, the waiter, the clerk? I cannot compare it with salesmanship, or the mechanical industries, or mining, or farming, for they have all been subjected to research and profoundly modified thereby. No, if library service does not need scientific research, cannot benefit from it, it must stand alone among the so-called professions and be on a much lower plane than I have always supposed. No, if I thought for a moment that this is the reason we have so little scientific research, I would lose no time in transferring myself to some activity where growth and improvement are possible.

A second possible reason that there is so little research in the field of library service is that if it is a science at all and not an art, it is only an applied science and that the necessary research is therefore carried on in the underlying sciences—psychology,

¹ *Op. cit.* (Heath), pp. 146-49.

social science, political science, etc. True it is that to a large extent library science is an applied science, but so are education and engineering and agriculture.

To my mind the real reason that there is so little scientific study of the problems of library service is that practically no librarians have been trained in scientific methods. Added to this, of course, is the fact that the unit of organization has been too small to make possible the necessary degree of specialization. Moreover, there has been, and still is, I believe, a deep-rooted prejudice among library workers against subjecting their activities to scientific scrutiny. Intelligence, common sense, hard work, devotion, and an admirable spirit of service have given us a library service of which we are not ashamed. We do not want less of these qualities, but the time has come for a scientific examination of many underlying assumptions and for the application of methods of inquiry which have proved fruitful in so many fields.

I think there is in their development a very close parallel between library science and the science of education. Twenty or twenty-five years ago education stood where library service stands today. The great strides that have been made in education have been due almost entirely to scientific study of its problems. Scientifically determined facts are taking the place of empirical judgments, guesswork, and individual opinions.

We may, I think, dismiss the idea that library service offers no field for research. We hear it said now and then by librarians of long experience and high position that there is not sufficient content in the field of library science to justify programs of study leading to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy or even to a Master's degree. There might be some ground for this view if one were to consider only the slender body of technique that is peculiar to library management. It certainly overlooks completely the fact that the librarian, like the engineer, the teacher, the physician, is not primarily a technician but is applying to the solution of his problems many sciences with which it is axiomatic that he must be familiar if he is to apply intelligently what they have to contribute.

One year too much for the training of a librarian who has to be a psychologist, a sociologist, an expert in the world of books, or a specialist in some field of science or the humanities! How absurd! To produce a Doctor of Philosophy regarded as fit to teach elementary psychology to college Freshmen at least three years of intensive graduate study and research are considered the minimum. So in sociology or any other of the academic disciplines.

We hear nowadays of a science of administration or management. I suppose it is in the main only an application of the principles of psychology, but has it nothing to offer to the librarian who has to organize for the production of a service and to sell that service to his public? We are still handicapped by the widespread idea that the successful administrator is born with all the necessary qualities and that all he needs is experience. There is not time to speak of the demands made upon reference and research librarians, and upon those who conduct special services in various fields. The public library must be more than an efficient business organization; it is a social and educational agency. Social science and education should figure largely in training for public-library service.

It seems to me incredible that anyone acquainted with the facts should doubt that there is enough a librarian needs to study to keep him busy three years—the minimum period which seems to be generally agreed upon as necessary to achieve a reasonable degree of mastery of some general subject and complete and publish a significant piece of original research in some special phase of it. Take note of the fact that it is not only, and not primarily, knowledge and information that needs to be acquired. Nothing short of a lifetime is sufficient to learn all that a librarian needs to know! The important thing is training in scientific methods of attacking and solving problems, the cultivation of the scientific spirit and attitude. As soon as this is recognized and acted upon, library science will become a reality. Until that time librarians, no matter how many facts they carry in their heads, will be looked upon as clerks and routinists.

The fear of a dearth of problems for research in library service

in itself unmistakably reveals the lack of scientific training and the scientific attitude. "The scientist," says Dewey, "advances by assuming that what seems to observation to be a single total fact-is in truth complex."¹ He proceeds to break up the gross fact into its elements. Those who see no field for research in library service or need of advanced training for librarianship simply fail to recognize the fundamental complexity of library science. To most librarians, as to almost all others, it presents an entirely false appearance of simplicity. May I emphasize my point as to the essential complexity of library science by quoting a short paragraph or two from Dewey's *The Sources of a science of education*, substituting "library" where he uses the word "education," as I recommended doing a little while ago with the whole book, and also using the word "service" where he uses "instruction."

... We have become only recently alive to the complexity of the *library* process and aware of the number and variety of disciplines that must contribute if the process is to go on in an intelligently directed way. ... Not merely inert conservatives in the general public but many professors in other lines in universities have not been awakened to the complexity of the *library* undertaking. Hence, such persons regard the activities of those in *library schools* as futile and void of serious meaning.

... There is no subject-matter intrinsically marked off, earmarked so to say, as the content of *library science*. Any methods and any facts and principles from any subject whatsoever that enable the problems of administration and *service* to be dealt with in a bettered way are pertinent. ... It may be doubted whether with reference to some aspect or other of *library service* there is any organized body of knowledge that may not need to be drawn upon to become a source of *library science*. ...²

If library science has no important content of its own but draws when and to the extent necessary upon all other fields, why provide for librarianship independent training in research? Why not consider the librarian merely an executive who calls upon the psychologist, or the sociologist, or the architect, or the engineer when he is needed? The answer is, in the first place, that the mere executive librarian, not recognizing the complexity of the problems he has to deal with, will not know when

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 150.

² Pp. 49-50, 48.

to call in the outside expert. And, in the second place, the outside expert sees the problem only from his own narrow point of view. We may bring in the psychologist to study a library problem, but he is merely a psychologist, and so the sociologist, the statistician, the engineer, and the bibliographer. The scientifically trained librarian is all and none of these. Their attitudes, their skills, and their points of view are fused and unified in him into a new product. This is why, as I see it, we must have people trained for research in library science. The psychologist cannot do the librarian's job; the sociologist cannot do it. Nor can experts in any of the other fields which must be familiar to the librarian so that he can draw upon them for his facts and methods when necessary. It might easily take five or six years of graduate study instead of three to train a librarian worthy to hold the degree which signifies the appropriate and thorough scientific training.

If there were time it might prove interesting and profitable to point out some of the difficulties of taking over bodily into library science the applications of underlying sciences which have been made in other fields. We should find, I think, that the scientific problems of the librarian are, in many cases at least, more difficult and complicated than those of the so-called educator. The librarian no less than the school man has need of training in psychology, for he too must be a close student of human behavior. However, the librarian's clinical and laboratory material is rather more elusive and uncertain. Research work in education has concerned itself very largely with the development and application of tests—tests, first, to determine the existing capacities of the individual, on the theory that an understanding of present behavior is essential if behavior is to be changed.

Let us assume, though it may be contrary to fact, that the librarian is not concerned with the psychology of learning—that is, the process of learning. He nevertheless is concerned with the effect of what is learned through reading upon the development of traits, interests, habits, and mental and social attitudes, in short with the effect of reading on behavior. Why does he not need as much as the educator to have an accurate

knowledge of the individual's behavior before the modification took place?

But here the research worker in education has a great advantage over his colleague in library service. In formal education the subject—or victim if you prefer—is under complete control. He cannot refuse to take any test that the educational authorities see fit to administer. That is a tremendous advantage which educational science has over library science and over the social sciences in general, except perhaps in the field of social pathology. The student of education can treat his material much as does the chemist and biologist. He can put it under the microscope or in the test tube or in the animal cage or on the operating table, and subject it to almost any experimental conditions desired while observing the results and accurately measuring them.

Unfortunately (fortunately, too, perhaps) the library researcher has no such degree of control over his human material. He cannot put his readers like guinea pigs in cages and experiment with their diet, or like dogs on the operating table and with or without anesthetic explore the mysteries that only the scalpel will lay bare. What he does he must do, for the most part, with the subject's consent. Consequently, the process of accumulating the necessary data is longer and more difficult. This is of course one reason we have always proceeded so largely by empirical, rule-of-thumb, and guesswork methods and procedures.

How much use the librarian may eventually make of tests and measurements I do not venture to predict—much more, I do believe, than is commonly assumed. I can see no inherent reason why the future reader's consultant should not when requested administer scientific intelligence tests, aptitude tests, comprehension tests, etc., and on the basis of scientific findings prescribe a program of reading. The time may come when for many adult patrons the public library will have on file psychological and other personal data as complete and as scientifically prepared as any to be found in the records of hospitals or social service clinics.

In the meantime, the librarian must confine the study of his human material to problems for which the appropriate techniques and procedures seem to be less inquisitorial, to involve less baring of the inner and secret chambers of the reader's life and personality. One such approach, psychological in its nature, is a study of attitudes. In the practical work of a librarian, attitudes are a most important factor—his own attitudes, the attitudes of the staff, of the patrons, and even of the non-reading public. How can he measure and analyze correctly, how can he understand and modify, the attitudes that condition his success? This is one of the challenges that library service makes to scientific psychology. The librarian may find the testing and measurement of attitudes as fundamental in his work as mental measurements have come to be in formal education.

I had hoped to have time for a few words about the bearing of what I have been saying on advanced training for librarianship. At what point should training in methods of scientific research begin? How much of a student's time should be devoted to research and how much merely to learning what is already known and easily accessible in print? That is, what proportion of time and effort should go to growth and what to maintenance of the *status quo*?

I am far from assuming that the research product of students in training will be of very great value. In other fields no product of importance is expected until after the period of training represented by the doctorate. The Guggenheim and other fellowships having serious research as their prime object are of the post-doctorate type. But after all, only a small percentage of our graduate students will ever go on to the doctorate or engage in scientific research for its own sake. The value of introducing a certain amount of research into the graduate curriculum is found in the by-products; and these accrue to all, not merely to the few who show special aptitude for it and go on to make their contribution in the research field.

And what are these valuable by-products? First of all, I think I would say, the better, or more scientific, habits of thinking, which ought to result. I imagine that most teachers who have

had experience with graduate students at the beginning of their work, particularly if their college courses have been predominantly literary rather than scientific, would agree with Professor Truman L. Kelly, of Harvard University, who finds that average or above-average students are unable ordinarily to observe, infer, and make generalizations about phenomena.¹ And the reason, he thinks, is that they have never had even the simplest training in these processes; that, in fact, they have "probably had training antagonistic to these things." Dr. J. Christian Bay, the accomplished librarian of the John Crerar Library, recommends training in scientific method for librarians. He says:

Science, as everybody knows, grows by observation and experiment. . . . The art of seeing, and seeing correctly, is common among scientists. The skill of correct observation need not be foreign to the librarian. . . . If a chemist tries his hand at librarianship, he will carry his laboratory habits with him. A good knowledge or skill gained in a special field of work or research will mean a gain to library science if applied to its domain.²

It should not need to be pointed out that the librarian who is to have any responsibility for the service of research libraries should have training not only in the spirit and methods of research in general but special training in the field covered by his library. Even though the librarian may not himself engage in serious research, he should be able to grasp readily and appreciate the significance of scientific studies made by others. Moreover, when scientific research comes into its own in the library field, as I am confident it will, the research worker will have to depend on the co-operation of those who are carrying on the services subjected to study. Any findings of value that go back into improved service will have to go through them. They should certainly be more than mere inert "channels of reception and transmission."

There is one more by-product too important to pass over without mention—the vitalizing of teaching that results from research. Contrary to a view widely held, I believe that the

¹ *Scientific method* (Ohio State University Press, 1929), p. 126.

² *The Sciences in the training of the librarian* (1928), pp. 12-13, 17.

best and most inspiring teaching is closely tied up with genuine research. The idea is well expressed in a passage quoted by Professor Frederic A. Ogg in his survey, *Research in the humanistic and social sciences*:

Without the attitude of mind toward his [the professor's] subject that comes from the constant employment of research methods, the edge of his analysis will become dulled and a disposition to accept and impart the old will be substituted for an inner compulsion to question and re-examine—a compulsion which the teacher should feel if it is to be communicated to his students.¹

If your time and patience permitted, we might indulge in some speculation as to the steps by which research is likely to come to occupy its rightful place in library service, but that must be left to some other time and occasion. It is pretty safe to conclude that the process will not be unlike that which has gone on in many other fields, education probably offering the closest analogy.

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SCHOOL OF LIBRARY SERVICE
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

¹ *Op. cit.* (Century, 1928), p. 21.

CONSULTANTS AT THE NATIONAL LIBRARY

WITH respect to the technique which concerns the routine operations of a library—cataloguing, classification, and the ordinary bibliographic and reference work—the libraries of the United States have developed not merely methods but a personnel extraordinarily competent. Except as the supply prove insufficient through the apparent preference of students of library economy for administrative work or the more “popular” side of reference work or the work with the schools or with the young, the personnel will doubtless be fairly augmented and replenished as the occasion requires. The conventional equipment for it is of course a general educational background represented by a college course plus the training afforded by a library school and such additions as actual experience may furnish. Should the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago function fully and largely, it may provide technicians equipped in even the higher ranges of bibliographic attainment such as abroad are secured through the *École des Chartes*.

The equipment, however, which even after such advanced studies they will bring to a library is that of the professional technician. It is of course of a high order; and the operations to which it applies itself are operations absolutely fundamental to the development and use of the collections. There are, however, attainments which might be highly useful in both the development and the service of the collections which heretofore only by chance would be coupled with those of the technician. These are the specialized knowledge and experience of men who have devoted themselves to the subject matter of particular fields of learning, have pursued studies and engaged in actual research in them; who are, in effect, “specialists” in those fields of learning. The affiliation with the staff of a library of a group of such specialists representing at least the main fields of learning might bring to its service their criticism and suggestion in the

development of the collections (and even the perfection of the apparatus), and might bring to the reader the benefit of their counsel in his actual use of the material and apparatus. Nor would it be merely the inexpert to whom their aid might be appropriate, since even a mature investigator approaching newly a considerable collection might well be saved time and otherwise inconvenienced by such counsel from one who, familiar with the subject matter and the methods of research in it, has acquired also a familiarity with that particular collection and its special apparatus.

It is the foregoing consideration that has suggested to the Library of Congress the project for the association with its staff of such a group of specialists—advisers to the administration, advisers also to the public, and in a large sense “interpreters” of both the collections and the apparatus. The special knowledge (of the subject matter) involved was already in a measure represented in the regular staff; it is specifically represented in the incumbents of the several “chairs” (American history, music, fine arts, and aeronautics), each of whom is an accomplished specialist in a field of subject matter outside of library technique. Each “chair,” however, for which the compensation is a combination of a government stipend with the income of an endowment, has full administrative responsibilities in the conduct of a division of the Library and a subordinate staff; and is necessarily subject to the requirements conventional in the government service. It seemed possible that without those responsibilities and in a relation largely exempted from such conventional requirements a number of men might be secured for this advisory relation alone, content to receive for it a compensation (for instance, say \$2,500 per annum) which would be scarcely more than an honorarium. They might be drawn in part from among the teachers in colleges and universities retiring under some age limit, or investigators similarly retiring from research work; they might even be younger men still desiring to pursue some research of their own or some systematic work outside of the Library which, however, might proceed concurrently with the service to the Library, the latter not occupying a full Li-

brary day or more than the academic (nine-month) year. The numerous attractions of Washington as the national capital, as well as the resources—attractive to any scholar—of the Library itself, might be added, influential inducements.

Suggested two years ago to Mr. Arthur M. Huntington, who had provided for us a fund of which the income was applicable to the purchase of books within a certain field, the idea was adopted by him in the creation by endowment (\$50,000) of a consultantship in Hispanic literature. Presented later to the General Education Board, it led to a grant from that Board in May, 1929, of a sum which, directly applicable during the next several years, has enabled us to take on six additional such consultants. Fields thus represented during the past year were English and American literature (current), classical literature, European history, church history, economics; and for periods, philosophy and science. And the quality and attainments of the men who from the outset accepted our invitations to this service fully sustained our expectation that it would attract scholars of ripe experience who would welcome the opportunity to put their knowledge and experience at the service of the community in this peculiarly genial relation.

The fields named above are, of course, but a fraction of the fields that should be covered. To cover even the most general of them will require not less than fifteen such consultantships; and an amplification of the group to at least that number, with a provision for its permanent maintenance, is of course a major ambition with us. The endowment involved (with a unit honorarium of \$2,500 per annum) would be \$750,000.

In the meantime, the validity of the idea, which in the abstract has seemed convincing enough, has certainly been demonstrated by the single year's experience of its even limited operation: demonstrated in the service which the Library has experienced in the aid to the development of its collections, by the testimony of such of the public as have had the benefit of the interpretative service, and in the interest and enthusiasm of the men of learning who constituted the group for the first year of experiment. They included the following: English and

American literature, Dr. M. A. De Wolfe Howe, of Boston; classical literature, Dr. Harold N. Fowler, and in European history, Dr. Henry E. Bourne, both retired from the faculty of Western Reserve; in church history, Dr. Charles S. Lane, retired from the faculty of Hartford Theological Seminary; in economics, Dr. Victor S. Clark; in philosophy (part year), Dr. William A. Hammond, of Cornell; and in science, Dr. Alfred C. Lane, of Tufts.

To us at Washington the project of these consultants is a perfectly natural evolution and merely the recognition of an opportunity quite obvious. Indeed, it carries only one stage farther and in a larger dimension that mediation between the collections and the inquiring public which is in varying degrees the effort of all our public libraries. We have therefore been somewhat surprised at the impression that it has made as if in its nature an invention or discovery; and as this impression has been coupled with a disposition (not at all disparaging) to ascribe to us the characteristics of a university, we have to disclaim any such excessive pretensions, stipulating that these specialists are not here either to teach or themselves to pursue research in the interest of the Library, and that though with the incumbents of our "chairs" we refer to them informally as "a faculty," their relation with our constituency will not be didactic in that sense. Nor will the addition of this resource to our service imply that we are proposing to institute an academic relation with our readers, undertake any responsibility for the control of their studies, or confer upon them any "credits" for successful achievement in them.

HERBERT PUTNAM

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS
WASHINGTON, D.C.

THE CARNEGIE CORPORATION AND THE GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL: A HISTORICAL OUTLINE

I HAVE been asked to record the steps which led to the establishment of the Graduate Library School at the University of Chicago with an endowment of one million dollars contributed by the Carnegie Corporation.

We all know the picturesque story of how Andrew Carnegie first became interested in libraries through the books he borrowed from Colonel Anderson, of Allegheny. That interest, which continued throughout his life, led to gifts of more than fifty million dollars for public-library buildings in the United States and Canada alone, these gifts having been made through the Carnegie Corporation after its establishment in 1911. During the war, the construction of library buildings was suspended at the request of the federal authorities, and at its close, the Trustees of the Corporation, feeling that an adequate demonstration had been made that a suitable library building was a normal and necessary part of a town's equipment, determined to seek for new and constructive ways to further the library cause. The basic study was made by Dr. William S. Learned, a member of the staff of the Carnegie Foundation, who was borrowed by the Corporation during the years 1922 and 1923 when the president of the Foundation, Dr. Henry S. Pritchett, was serving also as acting president of the corporation. The fruits of this study are familiar to librarians, for they are embodied in *The American public library and the diffusion of knowledge* (Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1924).

After Dr. Learned's return to the Foundation, the task of translating his general conclusions into a specific program was undertaken by the writer, and the result was the so-called "Ten Year Program in Library Service," which was presented by him to the Trustees of the Corporation and adopted by them on March 19, 1926. It should be noted that in the preparation

of this program he was guided not only by Dr. Learned's study, but by the report on training for librarianship, prepared by Dr. C. C. Williamson, now director of the Columbia University School of Library Service, and published by the Corporation in 1923, and the advice of other librarians, particularly the members of the Board of Education for Librarianship of the American Library Association. This program provided for the distribution of five million dollars in annual instalments over a period of ten years. A major feature was the allotment of one million dollars to make possible a graduate library school of a new type. The Corporation recognized that there was already in existence a number of library schools of excellent professional standing, but in their judgment there was no school which could be said to occupy for the librarian's profession a position analogous to that of the Harvard Law School or the Johns Hopkins Medical School.

Pending the adoption of the program, the Corporation was seeking advice as to where such a library school might be established and under what conditions. Opinion as to the location was sharply divided, and the president of the Corporation feels that he may take the credit—or accept the responsibility, as the event may prove—for approaching the University of Chicago. The reasons for his choice are set forth in a report to the Executive Committee of the Corporation Trustees, presented on March 23, 1925, in which it is stated that Chicago is the geographic center of the American library world; that its public and private libraries offer extraordinary laboratory facilities; that the University of Chicago is not only an institution of the first rank operating on the quarter basis, an important consideration in this particular case, but it is unusually well balanced, both as to faculty and students, so that a new group, even though a small one, might be expected to form an integral part of the life of the University. Finally, "in Dr. Burton, the University of Chicago has a President who was himself for many years Director of the University Libraries and is peculiarly well qualified to direct the organization of such an enterprise."

Under authorization of a resolution adopted at this meeting, formal negotiations were opened with President Burton. He was interested and sympathetic, but, as was proper, he sought the advice of a group of his colleagues. This group recommended the establishment of the proposed school, provided the endowment in sight could be raised from one million dollars to approximately two and one-half millions. This report was sent to the Corporation by Dr. Burton very shortly before his lamented death.

The Trustees believed the figure originally named represented the maximum which the Corporation was in a position to contribute, and the matter was still in abeyance when Dr. Max Mason became president of the University of Chicago. His conclusion, after he had familiarized himself with the whole situation, was that since a relatively small school could serve the purpose for which it was intended as well as a larger one, an endowment of one million dollars was sufficient, with what the University could itself contribute directly and indirectly. If later on additional endowment were deemed desirable, it was reasonable to expect that the University could obtain this from other sources. Much more important, in his judgment, was the question whether his colleagues in the University faculties really saw an opportunity in the proposed plan and were unreservedly in favor of the establishment of the school. He had slight hope for the usefulness of a school which was "wished on" to his associates. The Corporation was in full accord with this attitude, and requested Dr. Mason to take all the time he needed to ascertain the judgment and wishes of the University faculties. The next step was the appointment of a University Committee, made up as follows: Gordon J. Laing (chairman), Edith Abbott, H. H. Barrows, C. H. Judd, J. M. Manly, Shailer Mathews, J. W. Thompson, and E. H. Wilkins.

On February 26, 1926, in forwarding the report of this Committee, unanimously favoring the establishment of the school, Dr. Mason wrote as follows:

The report was submitted to the Senate, and the Senate as well expressed its approval of the project. I am certain that there is a very real interest in

furthering the work of the School on the part of the members of the Faculty, and that thorough co-operation will result if such a School be instituted at the University of Chicago. Personally, I have high hopes that matters of deep importance may be the result of the research work of members of the staff of such a School and of the students as well, and feel that the whole project is a most important one in the field of general education. The Faculty and Trustees of the University of Chicago will be most happy in co-operating with the Carnegie Corporation to further this work.

On March 19, 1926, the Trustees of the Corporation adopted the following resolution, making provision for the immediate establishment and the ultimate endowment of the school:

Annual appropriations: \$40,000 payable in 1925-26, \$50,000 for 6 years beginning 1926-27, \$35,000 in 1932-33, and \$10,000 in 1933-34, aggregating.....	\$ 385,000
Capital grants: \$330,000 payable in 1931-32, \$415,000 in 1932-33, and \$255,000 in 1933-34, aggregating.....	1,000,000

Resolved, That if the University of Chicago shall submit to the Executive Committee through the President a satisfactory program for the organization and maintenance of a graduate library school, the Executive Committee shall be authorized to obligate the Corporation to the University of Chicago for an amount not to exceed the total set aside in the proposed program for the establishment and endowment of a graduate library school, namely \$1,385,000, payable in accordance with the schedule set forth in the aforementioned program.

The "satisfactory program" referred to in this resolution was submitted by Dr. Mason on April 20, 1926, and was unanimously approved by the Executive Committee of the Corporation on May 4, 1926.

F. P. KEPPEL

CARNEGIE CORPORATION
NEW YORK CITY

THE GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL AT CHICAGO

AS INDICATED by the title-page, a large part of the routine labor of editing the *Library quarterly* is likely to fall upon the staff of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago. Readers of the journal should accordingly have some interest in the School's policies and activities which the journal must in some measure reflect.

The following statement is a general account. It was prepared originally for a different audience.¹ It is colored no doubt by the writer's individual views. Yet, while entirely unofficial, the description of present conditions and enterprises is believed to approximate a consensus of faculty opinion. More interesting and significant evidence concerning the work of the School will be found in the reports of investigations which should from time to time appear in these pages.

MAJOR POLICIES

The following paragraphs present in highly condensed form certain statements of policy that have been made by faculty members on different occasions during the two years of the School's existence. Taken together rather than separately, they should give a sufficiently accurate notion of the views of the staff regarding the distinctive functions of the School.

1. The most important single responsibility of the School is to meet the standards of scholarship and research maintained by other graduate departments of the University, both in the character of work undertaken by the staff and by the research interests of its graduates.
2. The major aim is research, defined as "extending the existing body of factual knowledge concerning the values and procedures of libraries in their many aspects, and including the development of methods of investigation whereby significant data are obtained, tested, and applied."
3. The School can afford to take whatever time may be necessary for the definition and thorough investigation of fundamental problems.

¹ Read to the Association of American Library Schools, Chicago, December 30, 1929.

4. The School allows other library schools to assume the responsibility for passing on to their students a body of principles and practices that have been found useful in the conduct of libraries. Such training is not a function of this School, but is an essential prerequisite for admission. Certain fields may, however, be developed in which this prerequisite is not essential to productive research.
5. The School is primarily interested in a student body composed of persons attracted by the research facilities of the University as a whole and qualified by previous training and experience to undertake the investigation of problems significant to scholarship.
6. Not all of the studies undertaken by the School need be confined to research in its restricted meaning of "search for abstract principles." In many instances, they may more properly be called service studies, studies intended to increase the effectiveness of library service.
7. A deliberate attempt should be made to integrate the work of each student on the side of his library interest with the field or fields of related knowledge. Hence, fixed curricula and the building of high fences about intensive professional interests are both inappropriate.
8. The School should concentrate its efforts upon adding to the profession each year a few students who are thoroughly imbued with the spirit of investigation. Hence, the student body should probably never exceed five students to each staff member and should be confined as soon as possible to students who are candidates for the Doctor's degree or who are conducting studies that meet the accepted standards of the Doctor's thesis in respect to the methods of investigation employed.
9. An important function of the School is the preparation, collection, and publication of monographs whereby the results of significant studies are made available to the library profession.

SELECTION OF STUDENTS

Selection of students in a new school is, perhaps, one of its most significant activities. The stated requirements for admission at Chicago are three: graduation from an approved college, completion of an approved library-school course, and at least one year of approved library experience. These requirements are minimum and are somewhat mechanically applied. Exceptions, justified by unusual qualifications, are possible.

Beyond these requirements each case is considered individually by the entire staff: The staff does its best to find out by correspondence and by direct examination of the candidate

what peculiar qualifications he has for the study of some particular problem. The resources of the entire University are then examined to determine what men and what courses in any department are likely to help the student accomplish satisfactory results.

Students admitted after this scrutiny of their competence in a restricted field and of the facilities available for the study of that field are presumably those who will profit by the experience. The staff assumes no responsibility for placing graduates in more lucrative positions than they had before, though professional recognition may be expected to result from noteworthy accomplishments. The School is interested in students who are willing to make some sacrifice if need be in order to master some significant phase of librarianship.

During the existence of the School, we have received several hundred inquiries from prospective students. Of these one hundred and thirty-one applied for admission and ninety-five met the minimum requirements. Of those admitted, fifty-eight have actually been in residence. With the present number of full-time instructors, from fifteen to twenty full-time students are about as many as can be accommodated. It is accordingly essential that no mistakes be made in selection. The best means of preventing such mistakes is probably to rely as heavily as possible upon the recommendations of trustworthy references and other library schools concerning those graduates who are most likely to benefit by what Chicago has to offer. One such student from each library school each year would exceed the present facilities.

INSTRUCTION WITHIN THE SCHOOL

The last course described in the official announcement of courses is called "Individual Research." This course is the nucleus of the students' entire program. The research course is divided into several sections, one or more of which are directed by each member of the staff. This arrangement makes for continuous guidance of each student's work by a staff member, not merely in respect to thesis investigations but as a

means of co-ordinating his work in other University departments and bringing it to focus upon his chosen professional problem. The section meetings of this course serve the further purpose of enabling students who are working in the same general direction to profit by one another's discoveries and mistakes.

The other courses offered by members of the staff are not easily described in general terms. Probably no two instructors have precisely the same aims in view. But it is doubtless safe to say that a major purpose of each course is to define somewhat specifically the problems which invite investigation in the phase of librarianship covered by the course and to indicate various ways of attacking the problems. That is to say, one common purpose of the systematic courses is to reveal the gaps in existing knowledge and to point out the sources and procedures that may be utilized to fill the gaps. The broad fields in which systematic courses are now offered include bibliography, classification and cataloguing, adult and children's reading, training for librarianship, and college-library administration.

RESEARCH PROJECTS

Since the discussion of any research project inevitably raises more questions than it answers, a list of current projects is appended to this article without comment. The implications of certain projects might well be developed to the extent of one entire issue of this journal. Each one involves considerably more than meets the eye. But the mere list of titles will suggest something of the scope and variety of studies undertaken and may serve to invite correspondence by students of particular problems whether at other library schools or from the profession at large.

WHAT IS A LIBRARY SCIENCE?

For the rest of these notes on the character of the School it may be of interest to suggest the sort of library science to which research during the next years should contribute. This is to shift the emphasis from the visible to the invisible activities of

the School, but the latter are no less important. In view of the fact that our research projects are slightly more than two years old, any attempt to generalize about them may well appear absurd. What is said now may in a few years' time be held up as an example of premature enthusiasm. But some effort to record a developing concept of its task is perhaps one of the School's responsibilities to the profession which created the School.

A statement today concerning the nature of a scientific approach to library problems requires less temerity than it might but for the appearance last year of John Dewey's monograph—*The Sources of a science of education*.¹ This short paper should be carefully read by all educators and by all librarians as well. It gives organization and clear perspective to the pros and cons of scientific method as applied to a social enterprise like librarianship. No writing has appeared to date which in short space so helpfully presents a philosophy of research in the social studies.

The substance of Dewey's paper is that the sources of any human science like librarianship are as wide as knowledge itself. I take it no one has to argue any longer the fact that librarianship *is* primarily a social enterprise; that only in so far as we know what human needs are responsive to reading can we furnish the best reading in the best way; that to this major problem the difficulties met in administering library routine as at present organized are altogether subordinate; and that what the librarian can ultimately contribute to the advance of scholarship and hence to the welfare of society depends entirely upon his ability to select from all fields of knowledge whatever helps to reveal and satisfy the needs that reading can meet. It seems to me that the opportunity presented to the associated library schools is no less broad than that.

The following paraphrase of two of Dewey's paragraphs² may suggest the central idea: "The final reality of library science is not found in books about it, nor in experiments set up in libraries, nor in the classrooms of library schools, but in the

¹ New York: Horace Liveright, publisher.

² *Op. cit.*, pp. 32 f.

minds of those engaged in directing the work and policies of libraries. Results may be scientific whether they are actively present in the observation, judgment, and planning of librarians or not. But unless they are so present, they are not library science. They are bibliography, psychology, sociology, statistics, or something else.

"We must distinguish between the sources of a library science and scientific content. We are in constant danger of confusing the two; we tend to suppose that certain results, because they are scientific, are already library science. But a genuine library science can be developed only as we remember that such results are sources to be used through the medium of the minds of librarians, to make library functions more intelligent."

While paraphrasing, like any argument from analogy, is usually open to suspicion, I believe that Mr. Dewey's remarks have not been misconstrued. I believe further that unless the prophetic wisdom of these remarks is applied by those who like us at Chicago are trying to study fundamental problems, the thing we so glibly call "library science" may fall very short of its possibilities. Some of the cautions we need to observe are stated briefly in the following paragraphs to bring out the important implications as Dewey elaborates them. Where quotation marks are used to indicate paraphrasing, the words are Dewey's except for the specific reference to libraries.

1. *Do not discourage the collection of evidence on the ground that it handicaps the intuitive good sense of leaders in the profession.*—"Scientific study of conditions tends to prevent the slavish imitation of great men whose enthusiastic disciples often become prejudiced against ideas from other sources than the master. We must guard against this hero-worship which results in repeating the great man's thought after him without the spirit and insight which originally made them significant. Any new profession tends to form cults under the influence of strong personalities. But science does not efface the individual." To quote Dewey directly:

In the subjects best developed from the scientific point of view, the opposite is the case. Command of scientific methods and systematized subject

matter liberates individuals; it enables them to see new problems, devise new procedures, and, in general, makes for diversification rather than for set uniformity. But at the same time these diversifications have a cumulative effect in an advance shared by all workers in the field.¹

2. *Beware of recipes.*—Facts determined however scientifically do not produce rules of practice. The value of such facts consists in the help they give toward an understanding of the given situation. To set aside facts gained by daily observation and to determine practice by facts scientifically derived would, of course, lead straight to chaos. The value of scientific data is indirect. Such data are of use mainly as means of improving empirical procedures. Their value as rules is confined to rules for conducting investigations.

This caution is the more important in view of a skepticism in some library quarters regarding the compatibility of research and common sense. The function of research is to make common sense still more common. Certain facts recently gathered regarding the selection and circulation of books for non-English readers seem likely to confirm the practical wisdom of the Detroit Public Library in this particular. If they didn't, we should merely wonder why. If they do, the procedure of Detroit should be made more useful to other libraries by the evidence which shows why the procedure is effective.

In short, the practicing librarian is the ultimate consumer of data produced by the investigator. If certain data are not used by the librarian, it may be because he has not grasped their possibilities. It may be because the data have no relation to his more serious problems. In any case, the data themselves are not to blame for not being used. If it be considered a serious matter that research data are not used by librarians, it is far more dangerous and likely that the data will be used too much. It is far better that research findings be entirely ignored than that data which apply to only a few aspects of a problem be turned into rules of practice or recipes and be applied mechanically to the problem as a whole.

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 12.

3. *Do not be impatient for a science of librarianship.*—Again a direct quotation:

In the first place, no genuine science is formed by isolated conclusions, no matter how scientifically correct the technique by which the isolated results are reached, and no matter how exact they are. Science does not emerge until these various findings are linked up together to form a relatively coherent system—that is, until they reciprocally confirm and illuminate one another, or until each gives the others added meaning. Now this development requires time, and it requires more time in the degree to which the transition from an empirical condition to a scientific one is recent and hence imperfect.¹

Because a quantitative approach to library science is so recent as compared with the physical sciences, and also because the social implications of library problems are so much more complex, there is real danger of applying research findings to library problems prematurely. This is why it is probably best for library studies to remain in the laboratory stage for some time without any attempts to force their application to library practice.

While this advice can well be made an excuse for time-wasting, there is nothing to prevent investigators from wasting time if they care to. Outside efforts to prescribe the objectives of research often result in routine performance and mediocre work. The pressure for immediate returns also spoils much good research. For example, there are at least two current studies in the Graduate Library School which might well continue for ten years each before one would be justified in applying the results to policies of library administration.

4. *Finally, take careful note of the scope and limitation of each particular academic field which is expected to contribute to a library science.*—We are just beginning at Chicago to find out what elements of other University departments and disciplines pertain to library problems. The extent of such application is obviously great, far greater than we can ever hope to evaluate precisely. But various other fields of study have already been identified as capable of yielding laws, facts, and methods of

¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 21–22.

investigation from which a genuine science of librarianship may evolve.

In random order, the fields in which our students have done some work to date are bibliography, education, history, law, literary criticism, philosophy, political science, psychology, social service administration, sociology, and statistics. There are doubtless many others equally pertinent. But each of these in which our students have worked has contributed plenty to disturb our complacency over what library science amounts to today. The one field of bibliography is of course in itself the camel's nose under the tent flap. For the criteria needed to evaluate books and to define their uses to readers in any field must of necessity draw upon the entire resources of the field. Hence, all fields of specialized knowledge are directly pertinent to the field of bibliography.

In conclusion I have merely to state that the various cautions mentioned are being observed by the staff to the best of its abilities. The staff feels an obligation to avoid superficial work intended to produce wider interest in its preliminary efforts. At the same time it recognizes the obligation to study problems which the profession considers important. How to combine these responsibilities to the best advantage of the profession and of scholarship in the long run is a problem in which we shall increasingly need the advice and co-operation of all interested persons, as the nature and direction of our work become apparent.

DOUGLAS WAPLES

GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

SOME PROBLEMS UNDER INVESTIGATION AT THE GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

1928-30

A. Adult Reading

1. Evaluation for interest of topics discussed in contemporary magazines by representative groups of adults.
2. Comparison of actual reading in non-fiction with interest in non-fiction topics for representative groups.

3. Examination of reading in a large reference library to determine the parts of the collection most used, the purposes for which used, and the difficulties encountered by patrons.
 4. A collection and evaluation of methods used by various agencies to stimulate and direct the reading of adults.
 5. Evaluation of foreign-book collections in American public libraries with reference to needs of different nationalities.
- B. Cataloguing and classification
1. Study of actual uses made of various types of library catalogues.
 2. Codification of cataloguing routine.
 3. Classification system for libraries of chemistry.
 4. Transliteration and entry of Arabic names.
 5. Compilation of list of subject headings for sociology.
 6. Measurement of vocabulary difficulty in A.L.A. subject headings for representative groups of public-library patrons.
 7. Development of a scale for rating cataloguers applicable in both libraries and library schools.
- C. Children's reading
1. Study of four selected pupils in the Laboratory Schools of the University of Chicago by whom readings have been continuously reported during the past five years (Grades V-IX). Analysis of habits and interests related to case histories of each pupil.
 2. Analysis of juvenile-fiction titles preferred by pupils of elementary-school age to determine non-fiction topics of major interest to each sex and grade level in representative communities.
 3. Evaluation of topics for interest and importance to children classified by sex, grade, environment, and other factors.
- D. Historical
1. Methods for identifying roman-type faces used by the earlier printers. Findings should supplement the work of Konrad Haebler, in his *Typen-repertorium*.
 2. Preparation of source books in English translation; one on the invention of printing, another on the spread and development of printing during the fifteenth century.
 3. The transformation and extension of specific bibliographical discriminants which have been worked out for incunabula to the books of later periods.
 4. A bibliography of the sources and more important secondary material relating to early American libraries.
 5. General history of the movement for co-operation in cataloguing and classification.
 6. Researches in the history of libraries from the Roman to the Renaissance periods with reference to contents, methods of classification and

cataloguing, circulation, and conditions of book production. Specific treatment of Muhammadan libraries.

7. Historical study of bibliographical records, including catalogues and systems of classification, by periods from ancient to modern times.
8. Some bibliographic rarities (fifteenth and sixteenth-century imprints) discovered in the Berlin (Calvary Bros.) collection, University of Chicago.

E. School and college libraries

1. Comparative study of costs of books in various classes of literature represented in small college libraries.
2. Evaluation of college library collections from the standpoint of collateral reading in selected departments.
3. Application and comparison of three methods of evaluating titles in educational psychology, to determine relative efficiency of each method.
4. Analysis of reading habits of student body at Albany State Teachers College to determine relative use made of state, public, and college libraries with factors responsible for patronage of each.
5. Comparison of professional activities performed by school librarians with activities performed by teachers for corresponding grades, evaluation of activities for importance, and consensus to estimate appropriate responsibility of teacher and librarian in respect to each type of activity.
6. Analysis of reading habits as compared with reading interests of 250 selected pupils of the Evanston High School. Data include rating of non-fiction topics for interest, diaries of actual reading, school-library records, time spent in reading, lists of readings completed, and proportion of total reading obtained from school library.
7. Evaluation of small college library collections with reference to the study needs of college faculty members.
8. Preparation of graded list of professional journals for college libraries, by departments.
9. Analysis of magazines read by groups of pupils at Lindblom High School.
10. Comparison of data concerning reading habits, interests, and facilities of college undergraduates.

F. Training of librarians

1. An analysis of the basic cataloguing course in the light of current practice in cataloguing departments.
2. An analysis of the content of courses offered in normal schools and teachers' colleges for part-time school librarians.
3. Laboratory methods as applied to the teaching of reference work.

THE SERVICE LOADS OF LIBRARY-SCHOOL FACULTIES¹

ASSUMPTIONS

THE present paper is designed as a move toward applying in library schools the principles affecting the service loads of instructional staffs which have been found basic in the administration of higher educational institutions generally. For the most part and with appropriate qualifications growing out of library-school practice and conditions the principles are either so axiomatic or so well established as to warrant acceptance without discussion. They are developed largely in the studies and articles listed at the close of this paper, and may be summarized as follows:

1. The service load of an instructor must be recognized as comprehending both teaching duties and non-teaching activities.
2. Subjects differ widely in time demands, and diversified programs entail proportionately more time per component than homogeneous ones.
3. Method of presentation has a material influence upon time requirements.
4. Other things being equal, the higher in the academic range the instruction stands the greater the time demands of a subject are likely to be.
5. Size of classes is a factor chiefly where revision or extensive preparation of problem material is involved.
6. The labor of carrying added sections in a given subject approximates that of carrying classes in other subjects whenever revision is a considerable element or whenever the work of preparing problems increases with the number of students.
7. A course offered for the first time normally calls for a notably larger number of hours of preparation than does one given for a subsequent time.
8. The number of class hours in an instructor's program indicates little as to his total service load and can be a measure of his teaching load only if weighted to comprehend the several factors determining the quantity of out-of-class work incident to his particular class hours.
9. The normal working week of library-school instructors, as of intellectual workers generally, may fairly be put at about forty hours.

¹ Condensed from the report of a committee of the Association of American Library Schools presented at the meeting of the Association December 30, 1929.

10. The assignment of the individual instructor should approximate the normal working week, and should be arrived at after careful consideration of the various components in his proposed service load, the available criteria touching the time requirements of those components, and relevant personal and other factors not subject to measurement.

In interpreting and using the foregoing it would seem that the first step is to discover the time demands for the various possible elements of a library-school instructor's load; and that with even rough estimates in hand as to the out-of-class time which a teacher must spend per class period in each of the several subjects and on his several non-teaching activities it should be possible to construct hypothetically fair and approximately correct programs for individuals as their cases arise, and to that degree to advance beyond guesswork and trial-and-error methods. The present effort is confined to this objective and procedure because of certain inescapable limitations, viz., the necessarily brief and therefore somewhat unrepresentative span of the period for which reports could be asked, the fewness of the library schools and the consequent impossibility of carrying far any statistical analysis of their curricula, and the fact that some components of any teaching load are quite insusceptible of expression in hours and minutes.

PROCEDURE

The steps in the study are as below:

1. Review of the literature relating to teachers' loads in general.
2. Preparation of "Enquiry Forms" as exhibited at the close of this paper; the object having been to organize the items in such a way that the data submitted would be relevant, analyzable, and presentable whatever it might indicate, and to assure completeness by leaving blank spaces and incorporating requests for supplementary information.
3. Classification and tabulation of returns, omitting those on the course activities of instructors offering courses for a first time and those of instructors who described their preparation for classes as based on practical experience so extensive as to deprive their weekly records of significance; and omitting also those on the non-course activities of part-time instructors.

In all, seventeen schools and eighty-nine individuals responded. Except where otherwise indicated the word "hour" as used in this paper means "clock hour."

DATA ON COURSE ACTIVITIES

Library administration.—This group of courses is concerned with management in what might be termed its general and basic aspects, embracing as typical branches library law, library government, library finance, library buildings, staff management, community relations. Presentation appears to be almost wholly by lectures or discussions or combinations of these two. Reading or revision of student work is a relatively small factor, and in the one case in which it is considerable in amount it is probably due to the inclusion of technical matter in the course.

TABLE I

DISTRIBUTION OF TIME PER CLASS HOUR SPENT OUT OF CLASS BY INSTRUCTORS
IN CONNECTION WITH TWENTY-TWO INDIVIDUAL COURSES OR SECTIONS
IN THE FIELD OF LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION

	Time	Hours				
Mean						4.06
Median						3.59
Mean clock hours16	1.30	3.35	6.94	14.50	
No. of instructors	1	5	10	5	1	

No sectioning is reported, presumably because the methods of presentation employed provide for classes of all sizes; and classes range in size from two to one hundred and twenty. Little relation between size of classes and teachers' work can be traced. In one instance the greater part of the preparation is recorded as having been made in the summer vacation. The out-of-class hours per hour in class were reported as shown in Table I.

Library routines.—Under this heading are gathered the courses embodying miscellaneous routines, techniques not subject to treatment elsewhere, and such topics as have often been connoted by the term "library economy." Examples are loan systems, the mending and repair of books, order work, the keeping of financial accounts, shelf work, and the taking of inventory. The heaviest element in out-of-class work here is preparation for lectures and discussions, although the making of problems enters and revision of student work is involved to a

moderate extent, sometimes with the help of an assistant. Sectioning appears in the larger schools, presumably on the ground that effective presentation of the materials, processes, and details incident to technical procedures is possible only with groups not exceeding forty. There is some evidence that series of sections entail less work on the instructor's part than would an equal number of classes in different subjects. As might be expected in view of revision requirements, a rough correspondence is discernible between size of class and out-of-class work. Classes range in size from twenty to fifty-one. One instructor emphasized that the major preparation was made before the opening of the course. The out-of-class work hours per class hour are as shown in Table II.

TABLE II

DISTRIBUTION OF TIME PER CLASS HOUR SPENT OUT OF CLASS BY INSTRUCTORS
IN CONNECTION WITH FOURTEEN INDIVIDUAL COURSES OR
SECTIONS IN THE FIELD OF LIBRARY ROUTINES

	Time		Hours		
	Mean	5.18		
	Median	4.38		
Mean clock hours.....	1.50	2.75	4.65	7.79	11.50
No. of instructors.....	1	3	6	3	1

Reference books and work; bibliography.—While there may be minor elements of inaccuracy in this twofold grouping, it seems obvious that the materials and the methods of presentation and assignment involved are sufficiently similar to warrant the conjunction of the headings. As a matter of fact, the two subjects rather frequently appear together in a single course. The aim, however, has been to include under "Bibliography" only courses which consist mainly of the study of bibliographies, and this without further distinction as to type. The calls on the instructor's time here are heavy and are clearly defined as threefold—preparation for lectures and discussions, preparation of problems, and revision. Assistance on revision is furnished only in the largest schools. The carrying of parallel sections by one instructor appears, but since each section brings its own com-

plement of revising and often its own share of problem-making, sections in this group are ordinarily to be looked upon as entailing as much work as classes in different subjects. Classes range in size from three to fifty-one. The effect of class size upon instructor's load is considered in the figures regarding revision shown in Table III. The out-of-class work per class hour distributes as given in that table. The hours required for revision per class hour, including that of assistants, are distributed

TABLE III

DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL TIME PER CLASS HOUR SPENT OUT OF CLASS BY INSTRUCTORS IN CONNECTION WITH THIRTY INDIVIDUAL COURSES OR SECTIONS IN THE FIELD OF REFERENCE BOOKS AND WORK AND BIBLIOGRAPHY

	Time		Hours	
Mean.....			5.41	
Median.....			5.50	
Mean clock hours.....	.17	3.12	5.54	7.75
No. of instructors.....	1	7	14	7

TABLE IV

DISTRIBUTION OF TIME PER CLASS HOUR SPENT IN REVISION OF STUDENT WORK BY INSTRUCTORS AND ASSISTANTS IN THIRTY INDIVIDUAL COURSES OR SECTIONS IN THE FIELD OF REFERENCE BOOKS AND WORK AND BIBLIOGRAPHY

	Time		Hours	
Mean.....			1.50	
Median.....			1.66	
Mean clock hours.....	.00	.07	1.53	2.96
No. of instructors.....	1	7	14	7

as shown in Table IV. The revision hours per student per class hour, where revision was reported for the week in question, were as shown in Table V.

Book selection.—The common caption of courses in this subject is accepted as their definition, for although considerable variation in content and emphasis is known to exist among the schools there is no evidence that this is such as to distort otherwise valid conclusions as to instructional loads. Particular difficulties in measuring are encountered in the courses of this

group, for the preparation for teaching properly includes an unusual proportion of time that can hardly be accounted for in a schedule. This ranges from reading done within the term period which is of a general nature and yet has a bearing upon the teaching of book selection to preparatory reading done the year round and indeed to reading and library work extending over years or over a lifetime. The equipment which an instructor presents at the start of his work clearly merits weighty consideration at this point. As for the figures appearing on the reports, a rather large amount of time for preparation for lectures

TABLE V

DISTRIBUTION OF TIME PER STUDENT PER CLASS HOUR SPENT IN REVISION OF STUDENT WORK BY INSTRUCTORS AND ASSISTANTS IN THIRTY INDIVIDUAL COURSES OR SECTIONS IN THE FIELD OF REFERENCE BOOKS AND WORK AND BIBLIOGRAPHY

	Time		Hours		
Mean.....			.057		
Median.....			.056		
<hr/>					
Mean clock hours.....	.000	.002	.054	.101	.225
No. of instructors.....	1	7	14	7	1

and discussions is shown, and a moderate amount for revision of student work. Whether or not the teaching of parallel sections requires less time than the carrying of an equal number of sections in different subjects appears to depend upon the option and methods of the instructor, since the same material may or may not be used repeatedly in presentation and since assignments involving revision may be small or large. Class sizes range from two to forty-one, no correlation between them and instructors' work-loads being discernible. The out-of-class hours per class hour are as shown in Table VI.

Probably owing to the fact that the period for which reports were asked fell early in the year, almost one-half of the instructors made no mention of time claimed by revision. Too much weight should not be attached to the figures on this point, therefore, but they are given for what they are worth (Table VII). No estimate of the revision time required per student seems practicable.

Cataloguing.—The term "cataloguing" is broadly interpreted here, this being unavoidable because of instances in which the teaching of classification, or subject headings, or both, is organized as a part of the course in cataloguing. Preparation for lectures, discussions, and laboratory periods; the supervision of laboratory periods; and revision—these are the forms of work

TABLE VI

DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL TIME PER CLASS HOUR SPENT OUT OF CLASS BY INSTRUCTORS IN CONNECTION WITH THIRTY-EIGHT INDIVIDUAL COURSES OR SECTIONS IN THE FIELD OF BOOK SELECTION

	Time	Hours				
	Mean.....	4.39				
	Median.....	3.95				
Mean clock hours.....	.00	1.57	4.01	7.53	12.87	
No. of instructors.....	1	9	18	9	1	

TABLE VII

DISTRIBUTION OF TIME PER CLASS HOUR SPENT IN REVISION OF STUDENT WORK BY INSTRUCTORS AND ASSISTANTS IN THIRTY-EIGHT INDIVIDUAL COURSES OR SECTIONS IN THE FIELD OF BOOK SELECTION

	Time	Hours				
	Mean.....	.946				
	Median.....	.500				
Mean clock hours.....	.00	.00	.59	2.32	4.41	
No. of instructors.....	1	9	18	9	1	

that make greatest demand upon the instructor's time. The help of a reviser is generally available and heavily utilized. Added sections are apparently to be charged with approximately the time demands that would be incident to added classes in other subjects. Class and section sizes range from three to sixty-three, but relations between size and total time requirements are not close. The figures as to time demands generally are probably below those of a normal and legitimate load for cataloguing courses: first, because the week used for diary purposes in some schools fell before revision of student work had attained mid-semester volume; and, second, because in a considerable num-

ber of cases it was reported that problems had been made and books prepared in the summer. The out-of-class work per class hour is as shown in Table VIII. The total revision hours per

TABLE VIII

DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL TIME PER CLASS HOUR SPENT OUT OF CLASS BY INSTRUCTORS AND ASSISTANTS IN CONNECTION WITH TWENTY-SIX INDIVIDUAL COURSES OR SECTIONS IN THE FIELD OF CATALOGUING AND ALLIED SUBJECTS

	Time	Hours				
Mean.....		11.87				
Median.....		10.62				
Mean clock hours.....	1.25	6.22	10.43	19.45	28.25	
No. of instructors.....	1	6	12	6	1	

TABLE IX

DISTRIBUTION OF TIME PER CLASS HOUR SPENT IN REVISION OF STUDENT WORK BY INSTRUCTORS AND ASSISTANTS IN TWENTY-SIX INDIVIDUAL COURSES OR SECTIONS IN THE FIELD OF CATALOGUING AND ALLIED SUBJECTS

	Time	Hours				
Mean.....		5.87				
Median.....		4.00				
Mean clock hours.....	.00	2.61	4.82	9.94	19.75	
No. of instructors.....	1	6	12	6	1	

TABLE X

DISTRIBUTION OF TIME PER STUDENT PER CLASS HOUR SPENT IN REVISION OF STUDENT WORK BY INSTRUCTORS AND ASSISTANTS IN TWENTY-SIX INDIVIDUAL COURSES AND SECTIONS IN THE FIELD OF CATALOGUING AND ALLIED SUBJECTS

	Time	Hours				
Mean.....		.244				
Median.....		.207				
Mean clock hours.....	.000	.084	.222	.383	.875	
No. of instructors.....	1	6	12	6	1	

class hour are as shown in Table IX. The revision hours per student per class hour are as shown in Table X.

Classification.—The courses here grouped include in at least one instance the instruction in subject headings but in no case

that in cataloguing. The elements of conspicuous weight in the out-of-class load are preparation for lectures, discussions, and laboratories; supervision of laboratory periods; and revision of student work. Some of the preparation is indicated as having been made rather far in advance and therefore as not figuring in the record of a given week. Assistance is common on revision. Added sections in this subject apparently entail substantially

TABLE XI

DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL TIME PER CLASS HOUR SPENT OUT OF CLASS BY INSTRUCTORS AND ASSISTANTS IN CONNECTION WITH FIFTEEN INDIVIDUAL COURSES OR SECTIONS IN THE FIELD OF CLASSIFICATION

	Time	Hours			
Mean					6.82
Median					6.75

Mean clock hours80	4.25	6.71	9.75	12.62
No. of instructors	1	3	7	3	1

TABLE XII

DISTRIBUTION OF TIME PER CLASS HOUR SPENT IN REVISION OF STUDENT WORK BY INSTRUCTORS AND ASSISTANTS IN FIFTEEN INDIVIDUAL COURSES OR SECTIONS IN THE FIELD OF CLASSIFICATION

	Time	Hours			
Mean					2.09
Median					2.00

Mean clock hours25	.58	1.75	3.83	5.67
No. of instructors	1	3	7	3	1

as great time requirements as added classes in other subjects. The smallest class or section reported numbered seventeen and the largest forty-two; and the total work time varies in rather definite relation to these numbers. The out-of-class hours of work per class hour are as shown in Table XI. The revision hours per class hour, for instructors and assistants combined, distributes as shown in Table XII. The revision hours per student per class hour are as shown in Table XIII.

The foregoing completes the list of courses or subjects for which it is possible to submit significant figures. Scattered re-

turns were received relating to a small number of others which either are on the program of only a few schools or were being currently offered by only a few schools at the time of the investigation, but the data from these were insufficient to warrant presentation. Except for the failure to discover anything as to the time requirements of supervising field work in forms dissociated from courses, the limitations thus implied in the use of the findings may be less serious than might at first appear. It is believed that no great difficulty need be experienced in assimilating courses not represented to those for which criteria are

TABLE XIII

DISTRIBUTION OF TIME PER STUDENT PER CLASS HOUR SPENT IN REVISION OF STUDENT WORK BY INSTRUCTORS AND ASSISTANTS IN FIFTEEN INDIVIDUAL COURSES OR SECTIONS IN THE FIELD OF CLASSIFICATION

	Time		Hours	
Mean.....			.066	
Median.....			.057	

Mean clock hours.....	.010	.021	.061	.113	.145
No. of instructors.....	1	3	7	3	1

suggested, having in mind character of subject, mode of instruction employed or indicated, and size and nature of class; and that by this means deductions can be made approximating in accuracy those possible for the courses mentioned. As for courses taught according to any one of the several procedures in which class meetings appear slightly or not at all, it seems probable that a separate study will be called for in case such courses come to be developed in the schools generally.

DATA ON NON-COURSE ACTIVITIES

The list of non-course duties appearing on sheet 3 of the "Enquiry Forms" was supplemented in the returns by mention of the following: care for student welfare; oversight of field work; editing of school publications; preparation of exhibits; attendance at school social functions; official participation in general activities of institutions with which schools are connect-

ed, e.g., universities and library commissions. The seasonal character of many non-course activities is a possibly distorting factor in the gauging of their time demands, but this is partially offset by the relatively large number of measures available even after the omission of returns from teachers part of whose time is definitely allotted to school administration, field work for a library commission, or supervision of correspondence courses. It is clear that the non-course work of any teacher for any year is likely to be far from negligible. It is found to follow the distribution shown in Table XIV.

TABLE XIV
DISTRIBUTION OF TIME PER WEEK SPENT IN NON-COURSE ACTIVITIES BY
FORTY-EIGHT INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTORS

	Time		Hours		
Mean			10.24		
Median			9.37		
Mean clock hours	1.00	3.38	9.11	18.01	36.50
No. of instructors	1	11	24	11	1

USE OF THE DATA

It remains to outline means by which the data here assembled may be used by directors and instructors to reduce experimentation and to reach earlier and perhaps more accurate conclusions regarding the optimum service load. As already indicated, the procedure proposed is to accept the normal working week of approximately forty hours as reasonable; to consider specific courses as the units in building up the individual teacher's program, arriving at an estimate of the time demands for each course by adding to the number of hours occupied by class meetings for a week the number of hours probably required for out-of-class work, as suggested by the criteria presented in this report and by a consideration of the conditions affecting the particular faculty member; to take into account the number of hours likely to be devoted to non-course activities, basing the judgment here upon the figures in this paper and upon qualifying circumstances in the case of the instructor concerned; and,

finally, to combine the non-teaching time factor with such course time factors as will make up a normal week.

It will be noted that in the process above described a large area is left free for discretion and for adjustment to suit the individual's situation. This is inevitable, and would remain so even with the most exhaustive study of the service load and with the utmost statistical refinement of the results. No two instructors are on the same plane as regards speed of working or relevance of teaching experience; and while it may be held that to the beginner his slowness or inexperience is a just penalty and to the established teacher his speed or experience is a fair means of liberation, obviously to ignore these elements in fixing a service load would mean pressing a valid argument too far. Again, good teachers differ widely in their interpretation of students' needs and consequently as to the contribution of time and effort they are themselves called upon to make at numerous points. Also, the health of individuals, the physical conditions under which they must work, the demands pressing upon them because of their professional records, all may influence vitally the effort to reach wise decisions in particular cases. A teacher's service program is obviously not a thing to which time-clock methods can be applied.

With every service-load problem recognized as peculiar to itself, therefore, the question in a given instance is the interpreting and adapting of some such data as have been collected for this paper. Some examples may serve both to illustrate this and to suggest a concrete procedure. The case may be taken of an instructor believed to occupy a middle rather than an extreme position as to speed and experience, who is in good though not robust health, who works steadily but without tension or excess, who has taught a variety of subjects, and to suit whose abilities some reallocation of existing assignments can be considered. Library administration, library routines, classification, and reference books and work are among the possible courses for the new appointee. Exploratory computations as to time requirements might be made as follows, using as a basis the medians drawn from the distributions under the foregoing headings:

Library administration.—Two-credit course; class size approximately fifty, to meet in one section; presentation to be mainly by lectures; little revision involved, and no assistance assumed.

Hours in class per week.....	2.00
Hours out of class per week, at 3.59 hours per class hour.....	<u>7.18</u>
Total hours per week.....	9.18

Library routines.—One-credit course; class size approximately fifty, to meet in two sections; methods of presentation to include lectures, discussions, demonstrations, and visits, with occasional problems; no assistance available.

	One Section	Two Sections
Hours in class per week, depending on number of sections carried.....	1.00 or	2.00
Hours out-of-class work per week, revision being assumed to be a small element and out-of-class work for two sections therefore not proportionately greater than for one; at 4.38 hours per initial class hour.....	<u>4.38</u> or	<u>5.38</u>
Total hours per week.....	5.38 or	7.38

Reference books and work.—Two-credit course; class size fifty, to meet in two sections; presentation by lectures and discussions, with problems and regular revision involved; assistant available.

	One Section	Two Sections
Hours in class per week, depending on number of sections carried.....	2.00 or	4.00
Hours out-of-class work per week, work for separate sections being weighted as for separate courses because of the predominance of revision and preparation of problems in the load; at 5.50 hours per class hour.....	<u>11.00</u> or	<u>22.00</u>
Total hours per week.....	13.00 or	26.00
Hours of out-of-class work per week devoted to revision, at 1.66 hours per class hour.....	3.32 or	6.64
Possible deduction from total out-of-class time because of work to be done on revision and other routines by assistant; this being such a proportion as would still allow instructor to keep his hands on the revising, and being adjusted according to the time of assistants available and on the basis of class size and of the revising time required per student per class hour.....	<u>2.00</u> or	<u>5.00</u>
Total hours per week for instructor, adjusted for a specimen deduction as above.....	11.00 or	21.00

Classification.—Three-credit course; class size fifty, to meet in two sections; presentation by lectures and discussions, with laboratory supervision and regular revision involved; assistant possibly available.

	One Section	Two Sections
Hours in class per week, depending on number of sections carried.....	3.00	6.00
Hours out-of-class work per week, work for separate sections being weighted as for separate courses because of predominance of revision and preparation of problems in the load; at 6.75 hours per class hour.....	20.25	40.50
Total hours per week.....	23.25	46.50
Hours of out-of-class work devoted to revision, at 2.00 hours per class hour.....	6.00	12.00
Possible deduction from total out-of-class time because of work to be done on revision and other routines by assistant; this being such a proportion as would still allow instructor to keep his hands on the revising; and being adjusted according to the time of assistant available and on the basis of class size and of the revising time required per student per class hour.....	5.00	10.00
Total hours per week for instructor, adjusted for a specimen deduction as above.....	18.25	36.50

Non-course activities.—Any number of hours suggested by the range of loads may be assumed for the appointee in question, but as in the case of course activities the median will be used:

Hours per week devoted to non-course duties.... 9.37

At this point there appear two fixed factors in the problem, viz., the 40 hours accepted as the normal week, and the 9.37 hours to be reserved for non-course activities. The option and the problem lie in the disposal of the 30.63 hours remaining for course duties. A considerable range of combinations is possible, although no effort will be made to explore them all in this illustration. On grounds of economy the first and most obvious decision would probably be that either both sections or neither of the library routines course should be handled by the new appointee, since the carrying of a second section in this course is

likely to require less time than the assuming of an added course or section in another subject. Library routines, therefore, stand as a unit of 7.38 hours, either to be included or assigned elsewhere. The requirement of 9.18 hours for library administration similarly is not subject to variation, since the course is to meet in one section. Passing to reference books and work, a time total of either 11 or 21 hours per week is possible, depending upon whether one or two sections are to be included in the new appointee's assignment. In classification the corresponding option is between 18.25 and 36.50 hours per week. To fit the available hours, therefore, the following programs would be possibilities:

	Hours
a) Library routines.....	7.38
Reference books and work, two sections.....	21.00
Non-course activities.....	9.37
Total.....	37.75
b) Reference books and work, one section.....	11.00
Classification, one section.....	18.25
Non-course activities.....	9.37
Total.....	38.62
c) Library administration.....	9.18
Reference books and work, two sections.....	21.00
Non-course activities.....	9.37
Total.....	39.55
d) Library administration.....	9.18
Library routines.....	7.38
Classification, one section.....	18.25
Non-course activities.....	9.37
Total.....	44.18
e) Classification, two sections.....	36.50
Non-course activities.....	9.37
Total.....	45.87

These totals group themselves fairly well about the norm of 40 hours. The minimum proposal is only 2.25 below this figure. If justification be needed for the maximum load of almost 46 hours as it appears under (e), it perhaps lies in the fact that an instructor concentrating on one subject is in position to make the most economical use of his time and is likely to find his preparation hours running below the median for that subject. As a matter of fact, the program under (e) might easily prove to be lighter than the apparently smaller but highly diversified one of slightly over 44 hours under (d).

One further common condition of the service-load problem which was referred to early in this paper calls for a final word of attention. As frequently as not, the adjustment at issue may be that of an instructor quite inexperienced in teaching and therefore under the necessity of organizing his work from the ground up. The reports received from faculty members handling courses for the first year were too few to permit any definite estimates as to the time consumed in out-of-class work, but were sufficient to confirm the belief that there is a very great difference between the time requirements for the first offering and those for subsequent ones. Both the returns and independent observation suggest that the inexperienced teacher who without chance for advance preparation assumes a two-credit or three-credit course involving revision and the making of problems for a large class is likely to have to devote a very large part of his energies to it. At least it is clear that cases of this kind fall in a category of their own, and merit liberal individual treatment both because of the evident exigencies and because any incident maladjustments are readily subject to review and correction the moment the instructor completes the organization of his work and steps into the ranks of experienced faculty members. In other words, the newcomer in a teaching post is entitled to what in a library position would be looked upon as a period of learning.

ERNEST J. REECE

SCHOOL OF LIBRARY SERVICE
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

PUBLICATIONS ON TEACHING LOADS AND SERVICE LOADS
WHICH ARE RELEVANT TO THE PROBLEM AS IT
PRESENTS ITSELF IN LIBRARY SCHOOLS

- AYER, F. C. "Computing and adjusting the university teaching load," *Nation's schools*, IV, 26-30.
- . "How the teaching load is handled in state and other universities," *ibid.*, III, 21-25.
- DAVIS, C. O. "Size of classes and teaching load in high schools," *School review*, XXXI, 412-29.
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- HEILMAN, J. D. *Methods of reporting the college teacher's load and administrative efficiency: Colorado State Teachers College research bull.* 10.
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- McMULLIN, L. B. *Service load in teacher training institutions* (Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927).
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- "'Standards' and the teaching load in sciences," *Science*, LXVIII, 339-42.
- WOODY, CLIFFORD, and BERGMAN, W. G. "Measurement and equalization of the teaching load in the high school," *North Central Association quarterly*, I, 339-58.

[Sheet 1]

ENQUIRY FORMS USED IN THE STUDY

ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN LIBRARY SCHOOLS
COMMITTEE ON TEACHING LOAD IN LIBRARY SCHOOLS*To the faculties of member schools:*

As a committee assignment for the Association of American Library Schools a study of the teaching load in library schools is being undertaken, with a view to proposing such norms as may be generally helpful in the distribution of teaching duties. Use will be made of general sources and of the results of relevant investigations in other fields, but it seems essential to gather data as to the actual time which the specific duties of library school faculty members are requiring. In accordance with this the present enquiry is being sent to the various member schools of the Association.

Each school director is requested, providing he is willing to help in the study, to hand sets of the present enquiry forms to each member of his faculty, and to collect these and return them to the undersigned not later than November 15, 1929, enclosing with them a copy of the latest school catalog. Each faculty member is asked to select some one-week period, preferably beginning early in October, and by means of a careful time-record over the period to furnish approximately accurate information as to time requirements for the various forms of his work, expressing these in clock hours and decimal fractions of clock hours. A copy of sheet 2 should be filled out for each course, in addition to which one copy of sheet 3 should be filled out by each full-time faculty members are requiring. In accordance with this the present enquiry is in question. Please direct to Ernest J. Reece, School of Library Service, Columbia University, New York.

Very truly,

ERNEST J. REECE, *Chairman*
Committee on Teaching Load in Library Schools

Oct. 1, 1929

SERVICE LOADS OF FACULTIES

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[Sheet 2]

REPORT OF TIME SPENT ON COURSE ACTIVITIES

(Each instructor to use one of these sheets for each course he teaches)

COURSE _____

(Use title as in school catalog, and give separate report for each section taught.)

FACTS NEEDED ABOUT THE COURSE:

Total class periods _____ Class periods per week _____

Length of periods in minutes _____ Number of students _____

Are you teaching this course for first time, second time or subsequent to second time? _____

FACTS NEEDED AS TO TIME SPENT ON COURSE FOR WEEK OF _____

(Express in hours and decimal fractions of hours.)

	Sun.	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thurs.	Fri.	Sat.	Total
Class room meetings.....								
Laboratory periods.....								
Preparation for lectures.....								
Preparation for discussions.....								
Preparation for combined lectures and discussions.....								
Preparation for seminars.....								
Preparation for laboratory periods.								
Revision.....								
Help in preparation by assistant or reviser.....								
Help in revision by assistant or reviser.....								
Individual instruction on course...								
Supervision of student research re- lated to course.....								
Reading, research, visiting related to course.....								
Planning and supervision of field work related to course.....								
Other forms of activity related to course.....								
.....								
.....								

If period covered by report was not a normal one as regards course activities, indicate reasons.

If you think of further facts which are significant in relation to course schedule, please add them (for example, if some of the preparation for the week in question was made in preceding weeks or in the summer vacation, this fact should be made clear).

[Name of instructor] _____

[Name of school] _____

[Sheet 3]

REPORT OF TIME SPENT ON ACTIVITIES NOT RELATED TO COURSES

(Express time in hours and decimal fractions of hours)

WEEK OF _____

(Should be same week as for report on course activities.)¹

Activity	Sun.	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thurs.	Fri.	Sat.	Total
Conferences (not related to courses) with students and alumni								
Faculty meetings								
Work on faculty committees								
Professional consultation								
Professional correspondence								
Professional reading and visiting (not related to courses)								
Research and writing (independent of work for courses or for professional organizations)								
Work for professional organizations								
Activity with outside bodies but in interest of library work (e.g. addresses, committee assignments on library problems of civic organizations, etc.)								
Miscellaneous duties, e.g.:								
Care of school library								
Preparation of entrance examinations								
Routine of admissions								
Placement								
.....								

If period covered by report was not a normal one as regards above activities, indicate reason.

If you think of further facts which are significant in relation to your non-course schedule, please add them.

[Name of instructor] _____

[Name of school] _____

¹ Exception to this is allowable in case it seems practical and more significant to indicate what a week's estimated time-share of each non-course activity for the year would be, and to supply the figures thus arrived at in place of the actual record for a given week.

THE RELATION OF THE COLLEGE LIBRARY TO RECENT MOVEMENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

IT IS only in comparatively recent decades that the maintenance of a library has been recognized as a necessary function of a college. Two or three generations ago institutions of higher education, particularly those which were somewhat distantly removed from the influence of the older colleges in the East, boasted no great libraries. Such books as were available for the use of students were for the most part in the private libraries of members of the faculty, or in small collections which had been started by the literary societies of that day. Many of the college libraries of the present day trace their genesis to such collections, the small libraries of the professors or of the literary societies being transferred to the control of the institution. From time to time these collections were augmented by the gift of other materials from similar sources, or by gifts from the libraries of deceased ministers. Under such circumstances the collection of books in the college library grew somewhat slowly and spasmodically, without any organized effort upon the part of the college authorities to keep the library up to date. Although the stronger and better-administered colleges began early to develop systematic plans for increasing the effectiveness of their libraries, the condition which has been described persisted in most of the weaker institutions until well into the twentieth century.

Within the last two decades certain influences which have been at work have demanded a strengthening of the library facilities. Chief among the agencies operating in this direction have been the regional standardizing associations, such as the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States. State departments of education, in establish-

ing requirements for the certification of teachers, have also had considerable effect on the provisions for library facilities.

The requirements of these agencies have affected the college libraries in three ways. In the first place, institutions have been stimulated to increase the number of volumes in their libraries. As a basis for accreditation the regional standardizing associations have set up a minimum number of volumes which must be available. In a similar manner many of the states have set up requirements that institutions must maintain libraries of a certain size in order to be accredited for teacher-training purposes. The second effect has been an increase in the support available for the library. The standards of some of the accrediting agencies now suggest a minimum expenditure per student for library purposes. The third effect has been the insistence upon the employment of a professionally qualified library staff. All three of these requirements have tended directly toward the upbuilding and improving of the college library.

Some wonder may be expressed that the colleges have not, of their own volition, given greater attention to the improvement of their library facilities. The principal reason for this lack of interest in the library is probably attributable to the "lesson-hearing" and textbook type of instruction which has prevailed in colleges. Under such instructional methods little use is made of the library. The instructor merely assigns "so many pages in the text for next time," and when the class meets again the hour is devoted to hearing a recitation on the assigned materials in the text.

With the employment of such instructional methods, the library fulfils two possible functions. The first and most general use is for supplementary reference material. Instructors who are alive to the inadequacies of textbook treatment tend to make supplementary assignments from books and other sources available in the library.

The second function which the library has performed under the lesson-hearing plan of instruction has been that of furnishing free textbooks to students. In several institutions which the writers have surveyed in recent years it is all too obvious that

this has been the chief function of the library. Twenty, forty, and even sixty or seventy duplicate copies of commonly used texts in fields such as education, psychology, and history have been found on the library shelves, even though the library was lacking most of the source materials commonly used in other colleges. It is not the purpose of this article to enter into a discussion of the question of how many duplicate copies should be provided in a college library. It will be agreed by everyone that it is not the function of the library to provide free textbooks for students, at least until the general reference collection is reasonably adequate for the needs of the institution.

Under the instructional conditions which have prevailed in colleges in the past, the library has merely been a more or less necessary adjunct. It has performed an important but not a vital function. In fact, under the "textbook" plan of instruction, a library assignment is looked upon by students as something of a bore, as just another chore to be performed for an overconscientious instructor. Library reading becomes a perfunctory carrying-out of an assigned task on the part of students, and the typical attitude developed does not foster an interest in reading which will carry over successfully to the years after graduation.

NEWER EDUCATIONAL MOVEMENTS AFFECTING THE LIBRARY

There are now under way certain fundamental changes in the nature of higher education which will undoubtedly result in marked modifications in the relationship of the library to the academic work of the college. The whole center of the academic life of the institution seems to be shifting from the classroom to the library, entailing marked modifications in the library itself. Certain of these educational movements will be briefly sketched, and their effect on the college library discussed.

Increased registration in social studies.—The first educational movement which affects the library is the rapid increase which has occurred in the amount of course work carried in the field of the social sciences. Investigations which have been made of

the programs of study carried by college students show that over a period of years the tendency has been in the direction of decreasing the proportion of work taken in the fields of foreign languages and mathematics, and increasing the relative amount of work taken in the social studies. In many institutions, during the last fifteen years the actual student load in foreign languages and mathematics has remained approximately constant although during this time the student enrolment has doubled and the enrolment in the social studies has increased at least fourfold.

The increase in the amount of work taken in the social studies has an important bearing upon the library situation. In the first place, students taking work in the social sciences are heavy users of library materials. Under ordinary circumstances more pages of library reading are demanded in these fields than in almost any other in which courses are offered in the college. On the other hand, the fields of foreign language and mathematics make comparatively light demands upon library facilities. The effect of the shift in emphasis from foreign languages and mathematics to the social studies has been to throw a much heavier demand upon the library than would ordinarily follow the increase which has taken place in total enrolment.

In the second place, the social studies comprise fields in which new material is being produced at a comparatively rapid rate. In order to keep up to date in these fields the additions to the book collection must be much larger than in fields such as ancient languages or mathematics. The two factors mentioned, large use of library materials in the social sciences and comparatively large output of new material, combine to produce an unusual strain upon library resources in the college.

Introduction of survey courses.—A second educational movement affecting library conditions in the college is the introduction of general survey courses. In recent years many colleges and universities have been experimenting with introductory courses cutting across a number of closely related subjects. An introductory course in the sciences given at the University of Chicago, entitled "The Nature of the World and of Man," may

be cited as an example. In this course the student is introduced to sixteen different fields of science. Courses of this type are of comparatively recent origin, the development having come principally during the last decade. Such courses are now offered not only in the general field of the natural sciences, but also in the social sciences, the fine arts, and literature. Although the movement is new, at the present time more than half of the better colleges of the country have one or more general survey courses in their curriculums.

It is the observation of the writers that these survey courses do not function satisfactorily where given by the textbook method. In fact, satisfactory texts for such courses are not available in most fields. The colleges and universities which have had pronounced success with general survey courses are those which have made large use of library materials, and have required students to do a large amount of supplementary reading in connection with the work of the course.

The fact that the survey course touches in a general way upon many different subjects indicates that the library must furnish the necessary source material in these fields. The college library can, therefore, no longer limit its book collection to fields which are represented by a "department" in the college. For example, in a general survey course in science the subject of astronomy will be treated. Many colleges no longer give work in this field, but with the introduction of the general survey course in science, reference materials in astronomy must be provided.

Change in methods of science teaching.—A third educational movement which will have an effect upon the library is the change in the methods of science teaching. Recent educational experimentation has thrown considerable doubt upon the supposed advantages of the laboratory method of teaching beginning science. In many institutions the amount of laboratory work required in first-year courses in science has been reduced, and the amount of lecture-demonstration work and the amount of library reading have been correspondingly increased. If the results of early experiments of science teaching are verified by further experimentation it seems probable that within a few

years this movement will make itself felt in most of the progressive colleges of the country. Such a shift of emphasis will tend to increase the burden upon library facilities in the sciences, fields which have hitherto been comparatively light users of library materials.

Independent work courses.—Within the last few years a large number of the better colleges of the country have introduced independent work courses, sometimes referred to as "honors" work. This plan of instruction as it has been developed in many of these institutions is essentially an adaptation of the plan used at Oxford University. As a usual thing, only the more able students of the upper two years are allowed to carry courses of this type. Under this plan of instruction the student is thrown very largely on his own resources. Daily textbook assignments and class meetings are entirely dispensed with. Instead there is a suggested list of readings covering the topic of the course; and conferences between instructor and student are held at intervals throughout the year.

The introduction of courses of this type makes heavy demands upon the library. Not only must the collection of reference material be adequate in scope, but there must be available on the library staff someone who is well qualified as a reference assistant. For the student in an independent work course the library, rather than the classroom, becomes the center of activities.

General reading courses.—Some colleges and universities are experimenting with the introduction of a course of general reading. Such a course cuts straight across departmental lines, in an attempt to give students a broad and general view of the classic expressions of human thought in all fields. A course of this type has been organized this year at the University of Chicago. This course, in which the enrolment is limited to twenty selected members of the Freshman class, is being taught by the President of the University with the assistance of a member of the Department of Philosophy. Some institutions have developed the same idea, not as a formal course, but as an added requirement for graduation. For example, Hamline University, in addition to the regular graduation requirements, asks that each student

read and pass an examination upon a given number of books from a selected list. Other colleges allow students to "read for honors," and base commencement honors partially on the number of books which students have read from a selected list.

The introduction of such a plan, whether as a formal course or as a general graduation requirement, necessitates adequate library materials. In order to provide satisfactorily for the general reading course at the University of Chicago, a separate seminar room has been fitted up for the use of the students enrolled. In this room has been placed a complete collection of all the books to be read. The room has been furnished in a manner to make it an inviting place for reading and study.

Correlation of subject matter.—Another educational movement affecting the library is the breaking-down of the hard-and-fast barriers which have separated the various fields of study into departments, and the provision for a much greater degree of correlation of subject matter in related fields. Many colleges are abandoning the traditional "major and minor" plan of fixing graduation requirements, and are substituting the requirement of a "field of concentration." The latter gives a much broader scope to the selection of courses for a given student, in accordance with his personal tastes and vocational needs. Instead of offering the opportunity to "major" in any one of twenty or twenty-five different departments, these colleges now provide for from four to eight different fields of concentration. Within each field the program of the individual student is set up after careful consideration of his own needs and interests.

The development of such a plan of curriculum organization necessitates a wide range of reading on the part of the student, in order to study a given topic from the points of view of different fields of subject matter. So far as the library is concerned, the need is not only for an adequate amount of reference material, but also for expert reference assistance.

Graduate study.—Another educational movement which will affect the college library is the development of graduate study. Expansion of the college curriculums in this direction is being forced by several factors. Perhaps the most important is the

general tendency to raise standards for the preparation of teachers in the public schools. Although the Bachelor's degree has in the past been considered as standard training for high-school teaching, the tendency at present is very definitely in the direction of requiring a fifth year of preparation. The program of work leading to the Master's degree is already more akin to the work of the senior college than it is to that of the upper two years of graduate work leading to the Doctor's degree. The suggestion has been made that the liberal-arts college of the future in communities where the public-school program includes the work of the junior college is very likely to develop as a three-year institution, offering a program corresponding to the present upper two years of the college, plus one year of graduate work. In communities without publicly supported junior colleges, the stronger liberal-arts colleges may add a fifth year of work to their present four-year program. That this tendency is already at work is indicated by the fact that the number of earned Master's degrees granted by the smaller colleges of the country has been increasing steadily during recent years. All of the data available indicate that at least the stronger and better-supported of the four-year colleges will be offering a regular program of one year of graduate work within the near future. The implications of such a tendency for the library of the small college do not need elaboration.

DEMANDS WHICH THESE NEW MOVEMENTS WILL MAKE
ON THE COLLEGE LIBRARY

The specific demands which these new educational movements will make upon the college library need careful consideration.

In the first place, there is clear evidence that the book collection must be much larger than has in the past been considered satisfactory. This fact is already being given consideration by the standardizing associations. The Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States recently increased its standard for accreditation from eight thousand to twelve thousand volumes. Even this number is recognized as being far be-

low that which will provide satisfactory facilities for the college which hopes to provide an excellent program of work.

In addition to the mere increase in the number of volumes, there is need for care in the selection of library materials. An attempt to extend the book collection rapidly usually overtaxes the ability of faculty members to select books. At this point the guidance of a well-trained librarian is important, in order to make certain that the collection is kept well rounded.

It appears probable that the introduction of independent study courses, general reading courses, and reading for honors will overtax the normal library provisions for duplicate copies. Under such circumstances it may be advisable to maintain a rental library as a supplement to the regular college library.

The second implication of these newer educational movements is for larger facilities for study by students. With an increase in the proportion of the academic activities being carried on in the library, the need for reading-room space becomes urgent. Under ideal conditions students should have seats in the library reading-room assigned to them individually, and should be provided with a place where materials with which they are working can be kept when the student is not in the library. Such facilities as carrels in the stacks and seminar rooms for special study are highly desirable.

A third demand which will be made on the library is for a better-trained library staff. The suggestion has already been made that expert assistance will be needed for the selection of new library books. There will be even greater need for well-trained reference assistants. Particularly under the plan of independent work courses students need to have available expert guidance in the selection of their reading materials.

A fourth demand which the library will face is for direct instruction in the techniques of bibliography. Students need to be taught not only how to use the library, but how to select materials for themselves, and how to evaluate and criticize the materials which they have read. The obligation for this instruction should be shared between the academic department and the library staff.

Finally, an important demand which the library will face is for a continuous self-survey of the use of books and of the reading interests of students. The college which organizes its program in accord with the newer tendencies in education should be vitally concerned in measuring the changes brought about by these various modifications. One of the best indexes of change will be in the increase in the use of books and other library materials by students. The institution can evaluate its own program directly by noting the changes which occur in the amount of reading which students do.

Information regarding the use of books should be available not only for the library as a whole, but also by divisions or departments. The administration of the college needs all the information it can obtain relating to the effectiveness of the various members of the instructional staff. The amount of library reading done by students in response to the suggestions of a given instructor is an important index of his relative effectiveness.

The pressure of the demands which these newer educational movements are making seem to be forcing a rapid development in the college library. The time has already past when it can meet its obligations by providing a few supplementary reference materials. The college library of the future, if it is to serve adequately the needs of the institution, must become the center of academic activities.

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THREE HUNDRED DAYS IN ROMAN LIBRARIES¹

WHEN I presented myself, letter in hand, at the great door of the monastery of Santa Scolastica in Subiaco I was not at all sure that I should be admitted or that, having been admitted, I should be allowed to stay and study, for the letter informing me that the archives were open to the public at any reasonable hour during the day had been addressed to M. Geneva Drinkwater and began "Dear Sir." The monks thought it strange, I am sure, that an American woman should have come to their monastery to study. They often asked me how I had known about them in America and why I had come so far, and the visitors who came to the monastery and were shown the archives were often more interested in the strange spectacle of a woman sitting over in one corner trying to decipher a papal bull or supplication than they were in the eleventh-century Psalter to which the archivist was calling their attention. But in spite of the novelty of the situation I met with no difficulty in obtaining access to the material I wanted to examine and was always accorded the most courteous attention and generous assistance.

The object of my visit to Italy was to inquire into the history of the monastery at Subiaco from its foundation to about 1500. Everyone remembers Subiaco and the monastery of Santa Scolastica as the home of the first printing in Italy in 1465, and I wanted to include that chapter of its history in my research. Not everyone realizes that Subiaco was the first Benedictine monastery, that Benedict lived there as a hermit and worked there as monk and abbot before going to Monte Cassino, where he wrote the famous rule and where he and his pious sister, Scolastica, were buried. Around the cave where Benedict lived, a monastery, Sacro Speco, was built which has been the goal of

¹ This vivacious account was written by Miss Geneva Drinkwater, who spent last year in Rome as the recipient of a traveling fellowship of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago.

pilgrims through the centuries. Some of its chapels have been hewn from the native rock; the walls are decorated with beautiful pre-Renaissance paintings and there is about the monastery a spirit which reminds one of the church of St. Francis of Assisi.

The libraries and archives of the Benedictine monasteries Sacro Speco and Santa Scolastica have been combined and are housed in the latter monastery, which is more accessible than the upper monastery, reached only after a stiff climb of about twenty minutes beyond the lower monastery. It was at Santa Scolastica, then, that I sat me down to read some three thousand unpublished documents relating to the history of the monastery to 1500. A register of the documents at the monastery was compiled in the eleventh century. This collection of about two hundred documents is the only group of Subiaco documents published. When one visits a monastery such as Cava dei Tirreni, whose archives are practically intact and contain several times as many documents as the archives at Subiaco, one realizes that we have only a fraction of the documents. They have been scattered and lost, through fire, war, theft, the indifference of the monks at times, and the inevitable consequence of the passage of time and of the stormy history of the monastery. In 1867, when the activities of Garibaldi convinced the monks that their possessions were in danger, the archives were transferred to a safer place. We have the statement of the abbot to the Italian government that the documents were returned. We do not know exactly where the documents were kept, and naturally there has been much speculation as to where they were and how many may have remained outside of the monastery. It is my opinion that the archives at Subiaco are practically as complete as we could make them today—in other words, that practically all of the Subiaco documents still in existence are in the monastery.

This is not true, I think, of the books, the beautiful manuscripts which once adorned the libraries of the two monasteries. Many Subiaco manuscripts have been found outside of the monastery in the Vatican, and the Valleccliana at Rome, the communal library at Perugia, for example, and I believe the

number could be multiplied. Unfortunately there is no medieval catalogue of the library (that is one of the things I had hoped to discover); but some of the books now at Subiaco bear numbers far above the number of volumes now in the library; for example, "This book is No. 1035 of Santa Scolastica" and "This book is No. 799 of Sacro Speco." Reconstructing the library of Subiaco in the Middle Ages would be a fascinating task. It would involve, of course, a study of the scriptorium, of the script and miniatures of the manuscripts. At Subiaco, it may be noted, the Beneventan script used in Southern Italy and especially in the great scriptorium of Monte Cassino was not used. Enough Subiaco manuscripts of the eleventh century have been identified to make possible a study of a school of miniature painting centering in Subiaco and Farfa.

There is a fair collection of incunabula at Subiaco but it includes, unfortunately, only two of the three books printed at Subiaco, the *Lactantius* and the *St. Augustine*. There is no copy of the Subiaco *Cicero* in the monastery today.

All of these documents, manuscripts, and incunabula were catalogued in the last part of the past century by the untiring archivist, Don Leone Allodi, who also helped to publish the eleventh-century register of documents referred to above. Don Leone's catalogues have been published by the ministry of public instruction at Rome under the direction of Professor Federici.

In regard to the familiar problems connected with the printing at Subiaco, whether Pannartz and Sweynheim were actually at Subiaco, how much John Torquemada, the cardinal-abbot of Subiaco, had to do with the printing, whether the *Cicero* was printed before or after the *Lactantius*, etc., no startling discovery was made though some additional evidence was accumulated. It is strange that there should be no mention in any contemporary record at Subiaco of the visit of the two German printers Pannartz and Sweynheim.

Driven to Rome by the cold weather, I worked at the Vatican Library and archives, enrolled at the Vatican School of Paleography, and listened to some lectures at the University of Rome. The Vatican School, which is perhaps second only to L'École des

Chartes, offers a two-year course in paleography, diplomatics, and archivistics under the instruction of Father Bruno Katterbach, O.F.M. The School is not large. There were fifteen or twenty enrolled last year, most of them clerics and all of them men except my Scottish colleague, Miss Cameron, and myself. We were also the only English-speaking students in the School, which included besides us Italian, French, Spanish, and German students and one student from Czechoslovakia. We met on the common ground of the Italian language assisted by Latin when necessary and with occasional lapses into whatever vernacular was our native tongue. Even Father Bruno sometimes lost a word and would have to ask for help. "Ach, ach, Handbuch, was ist?" he would say. And someone would come to the rescue with "Manuale."

I browsed, of course, in other libraries in Rome, in the Vittorio Emmanuele, Casanatense, Valleccliana, Angelica, American Academy, L'École de France in the old Farnese palace, British School, Prussian Historical Institute, etc., and in the state archives. I visited several communal archives and the private archives of the Caetani family in their palace in Rome, where I was received by His Excellency, Don Gelasio Caetani, who is engaged in the publication of the documents. In Florence I studied in the Laurentian and National libraries, and in Milan at the Ambrosian, the pope's own library now adorned with an enormous bronze statue of His Holiness, Pius XI, who was formerly director of the Ambrosian Library. It is a small and very beautiful library and one of the most pleasant in which to work.

Regarding the Bibliothèque Nationale in Paris I share the opinion of most students with whom I have talked. My difficulty was not in getting in but in getting out. After making several round trips from desk to door I persuaded the attendant at the desk to get the doorman on the telephone and they agreed to let me return to home and friends. In the manuscript division I came and went freely. I forgot to return some books to the shelves one time, being well trained in American library behavior, and was reprimanded by an attendant who later tried to assuage my hurt feelings with a compliment, and by

letting me look at a letter of Louis XVI kept in a velvet cover heavily embroidered in gold.

No such difficulty, let me say, does one encounter in the Vatican, where one may reserve books and a place to study and where the attendants are unfailingly courteous and helpful. There is some evidence in the form of American filing cabinets, at least, of the activity of the American cataloguers, but the catalogue is not of very much assistance in its present form. The library is small and compact and one soon learns the arrangement of the books and finds what one wants on the open shelves. With the manuscripts it is, of course, a different matter. The Vatican archives are catalogued after a fashion, but it is the most intricate system I have ever encountered. Some day after the Vatican and some of the other important libraries have been catalogued I hope someone will undertake a union catalogue of the treasures of the Roman libraries. Life would then be very simple and pleasant, indeed, for the American student in Rome.

GENEVA DRINKWATER

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THE COMPILATION OF "A LIST OF BOOKS FOR COLLEGE LIBRARIES"¹

THE Carnegie Corporation of New York, which has for many years evinced a generous interest in the public libraries of the country, has recently extended its interest to include American college and university libraries. In order that its benefactions might be made upon the basis of authoritative counsel the Corporation has organized an Advisory Group on College Libraries. This Advisory Group, under the chairmanship of W. W. Bishop, librarian of the University of Michigan, includes among the librarian members Andrew Keogh, librarian of Yale University; Carl H. Milam, secretary of the American Library Association; and L. R. Wilson, librarian of the University of North Carolina. Among the college executives who are members of the group are President Frank Aydelotte of Swarthmore College; Dean Virginia Gildersleeve of Barnard College; President Meta Glass of Sweet Briar College; Dr. Robert L. Kelly, executive secretary of the Association of American Colleges; President William Mather Lewis of Lafayette College; and President E. H. Wilkins of Oberlin College.

Many colleges have applied to the Carnegie Corporation for grants to aid their libraries. Early in its existence the Advisory Group formulated a searching questionnaire which was sent to all institutions applying for such consideration. Under twenty-six headings information was requested which would yield a relatively complete and detailed picture of the material resources of the institution and its library. This report on material resources was checked and supplemented by information on such intangibles as scholarly enthusiasm, academic *esprit de corps*, library interest, etc., through visits from an Advisory Group representative (generally Dr. W. M. Randall of the Uni-

¹ Read at the College and University Section, Pennsylvania Library Association, October 23, 1930.

versity of Chicago Library School faculty) who spent at least a few hours and perhaps a few days at each of the institutions. The only factor lacking in a reasonably complete picture was a qualitative estimate of the library's resources. To permit this qualitative estimate the Group decided on the compilation of a list of probably not less than eight thousand nor more than fifteen thousand books which might be regarded as a statement of the minimum holdings of every well-stocked college library. It was further decided that this compilation should be made under the direction of a librarian, and that this compiler should make up an original list which would be checked and improved by such a homogeneous group as the faculty of his own institution. Further steps will be described later. I was asked to undertake the compilation, and the Swarthmore College faculty comprised the first group of authorities to inspect the list.

Work on the project commenced in April, 1929. The list, from the start, was arranged by departments of instruction rather than in accordance with a library system of classification. Each subject was considerably subdivided, with, first, a list of periodicals; second, a selection of reference books, and thereafter according to a nomenclature which the teacher of the subject would find familiar and helpful. The compilation of the first list—done chiefly by checking such bibliographies as the *American Library Association catalog* of 1926, the *Booklist* from 1926 to date, the *Mudge Guide to reference books*, a year's reserved book lists from two institutions, and various other sorts of sources—was of necessity a hasty affair. The checking of these sources of information, the transfer of the resulting several thousand entries to cards, the arrangement of the cards under subjects, the transfer of entries from the cards to type-written lists, and the distribution of these lists had to be accomplished between early April and mid-May so that members of the Swarthmore faculty might inspect and ponder before the rush of final examinations, commencement activities, and the exodus of summer vacations. While these processes were going forward letters were sent to a selected group of college teachers throughout the country explaining the project and asking them

to contribute their suggestions toward the compilation of the final list. This group included a liberal representation of teachers in the small institutions. Care was taken also to assure a wide geographical distribution.

The help which came from the members of the Swarthmore faculty (and this is true of all the groups of collaborators) varied from perfunctory attention to the devotion of a great deal of time and thought to the project. It is equally true that a considerable number of eminent scholars in the various fields of knowledge gave generously of their knowledge and experience. Many alterations were suggested by the Swarthmore group. During the early summer months of 1929 the appropriate changes were incorporated in the original list and the revised sections typed or mimeographed for distribution to those extramural scholars who had agreed to participate. In no subject had less than four teachers agreed to inspect the revised list; in some subjects the number mounted to a dozen. As a sample of the ability and academic standing of these contributors to the project I name the group which assisted in the economics section:

O. F. BOUCKE, of Pennsylvania State College
RAYMOND T. BYE, of University of Pennsylvania
PAUL H. DOUGLAS, of University of Chicago
CLYDE O. FISHER, of Wesleyan University
HERBERT F. FRASER, of Swarthmore College
PAUL F. GEMMILL, of University of Pennsylvania
EMILIE J. HUTCHINSON, of Barnard College
MALCOLM KEIR, of Dartmouth College
R. C. MCCREA, of Columbia University
L. C. MARSHALL, of Johns Hopkins University
WILLARD L. THORPE, of Amherst College
CLAIR WILCOX, of Swarthmore College
H. A. WOOSTER, of Oberlin College

These revised sections were mailed out during the summer of 1929. Returns came back slowly, but by mid-October most of them were in hand. It was evident from the most casual inspection of their replies that the experts disagreed violently. Changing only the names of the subject and the institution, it

is quite truthful to say that a professor of psychology at Colgate might report that he had spent many hours going over the tentative list; that it seemed to him in every way a sound and admirable production and that with only the few minor changes which he indicated herewith it would serve its purpose excellently. The following mail might bring a letter from a professor of psychology at Oberlin saying that the same psychology list which had been submitted to him was terrible. He had had to scrap it entirely, and although he was conscious of the defects of his inclosed list (a thoroughly new and reclassified production) it was nevertheless a far better job than the miserable thing which had come to him. Perhaps the most extreme case of disagreement was in the case of the zoölogy section. The original tentative list went out with the approval of the Swarthmore department. It contained 267 titles. Some of the checkers found little to question in it. Two agreed only that it was too generous a provision of books. One wrote, "I have checked those books which it would be desirable to have accessible to the student though I realize that no undergraduate student (unless a prodigy) would be likely to consult any large proportion of them." Of the 267 titles he selected 68 and rejected 199. He added a few titles. Another reviser wrote in the same vein. He selected 43 titles and rejected 224. He, too, suggested a few additional titles. The selections of these two revisers agreed on only 17 of the original 267 titles. There was no agreement on the suggested additions. This, as I have said, is the worst instance of disagreement, but it is suggestive of what occurred in nearly every subject. The disparities were so great that an additional check was decided upon. The cards were rearranged another time and each section of each list divided into three parts; the first containing those books on which there seemed to be a very general agreement as to inclusion; the second (a much smaller section) showing those which had appeared on the tentative lists and which had been generally rejected by the extramural group of checkers; and a third lengthy section which included the doubtful titles—those which had been questioned by perhaps two revisers and those which had been suggested for

addition by a single reviser. The material was typed again in this form and sent out to a dozen or more librarians of college libraries with a statement of the purpose of the list and a request to indicate whether any of the titles in the first section did not deserve inclusion, whether any of the titles in the second section deserved to be restored and a request to express their judgment about the inclusion of the titles listed in the third part. This revised set of lists was distributed during the winter season of 1929-30. By the spring of 1930 marked copies were back, and in the light of the advice received from the Swarthmore faculty, the extra-mural group of college teachers, and the group of college librarians the compiler began to make the final selections. The verification of titles, the ordering of Library of Congress cards for bibliographical information, the finding of prices, etc., were time-consuming details. Manuscript commenced to be made ready in the late spring of 1930 and went to the printer more or less continuously from that time to September. Fourteen of the shorter sections of the list were issued and distributed by the Carnegie Corporation in August. The remaining sections were distributed about the first of October.

The list has certain limitations. It does not pretend to be complete or exhaustive in any division of any subject. The needs of the graduate student and the research worker were ruled out at the start. It consciously tries to include only those books which the undergraduate student could reasonably be expected to use in the pursuit of his work in courses commonly offered in the various liberal-arts colleges. Even with so definite an aim as this there have been complications and there are inequalities.

What, for example, about works in foreign languages? In most of our colleges few undergraduates read with facility technical works in foreign languages. The mathematician, however, may feel that it is essential for the advanced undergraduate student in mathematics to have access to books and journals in at least French and German. The botanist, on the other hand, may feel that works in English are enough. The practical solution has to be a compromise. Or where, for another example,

shall we draw the line on those books or journals which the teacher must have to keep up to date but which would seldom or never be consulted by the undergraduate?

Another difficulty has been the actual number of titles to be listed for each subject. The Advisory Group was emphatic in its wish to keep away from specific numbers—this is not, for example, a list of the best five hundred books on philosophy. The most definite statement that was made was that the list should include only those titles which the collaborator regarded as essential or highly desirable for the proper conduct of undergraduate teaching in his subject. This statement naturally gave a considerable leeway to contributors, especially to all (and this bars out few college teachers) enthusiasts about their own subjects. In an attempt to establish some sort of measuring stick the compiler sent to about twenty college librarians a statement of the project and a request for a distribution of 12,000 titles among the various subjects included. The results of this distribution showed remarkable variations. For example, the number of books to be allotted to chemistry ranged from 90 to 680; to political science, from 200 to 1,000; to French, from 100 to 1,100. The number of periodical titles showed the same variation—chemistry, economics, and education all ranging from 2 to 20; history, from 2 to 25; zoölogy, from 1 to 20. The averages, however, yielded what seemed to the compiler fairly reasonable figures, and it is interesting to note that the printed list does not show a great margin of departure from these averages.

Another question was the duplication of titles. It was decided that a title should appear only once under a subject, but that the same book might appear any number of times in different appropriate subject divisions. That is, a given title should not appear under "Psychology—reference books" and "Psychology—genetic." A title might, however, appear four times—once each in the economics, history, political science, and sociology sections.

Another difficulty was a decision to change horses in mid-stream. The list was originally conceived of as only a list of

holdings, that is, the fact that a given title might be out of print or that it might now be costly was not regarded as debarring it from the list. Later it was realized that the publication would probably have considerable use as a buying list. Because of this probable use it was decided that it would be best in many instances to substitute an available book for an out-of-print title and to be concerned with the question of cost. This shift, after the compilation had been started, has probably led to some inconsistencies in the inclusions. Many out-of-print books are listed and a few expensive titles are shown. It has been suggested that publishers may be moved to reprint some of the titles.

No one, least of all the compiler, regards it as a perfect list. It is the hope of those who are responsible for it that it is a reasonably good list. Any individual consulting it will find favorite titles omitted and what he will regard as poor selections included. On the other hand, it must be remembered that a second person is more likely than not to disagree with the first's disagreements. A list of the magnitude of this and to be used to meet as many varying needs as there are institutions to consult it is necessarily a bit off the bull's eye for each one of the users.

Copies of the preliminary edition have been sent by the Carnegie Corporation to two hundred and fifty or more institutions. Librarians are now at work checking it with their holdings. Misprints, old editions, inadvertent duplications, underserving inclusions, unintentional omissions—most of the various sorts of inconsistencies, inaccuracies, questionable decisions, and errors that have crept in should be revealed in this process of checking. It is hoped that they will be reported promptly to the compiler. A corrected edition, incorporating the appropriate information received from such reports and including an Author Index, will be issued later and made available probably through the agency of the American Library Association.

CHARLES B. SHAW

SWARTHMORE COLLEGE

WHAT CAN THE FOREIGNER FIND TO READ IN THE PUBLIC LIBRARY?

ONE of the functions of the public library is to furnish books for its patrons: books which they can read, whether for fun or for some other purpose. The patrons of a public library are, with very few exceptions, the residents of the local community.

One significant group of any American city is composed of the foreign-born. While one of the aims of Americanization programs is to teach foreigners to read English, the foreign population is naturally attracted to books written in their mother-tongues. The question then arises: Does the public library furnish to the foreign-born reader a sufficient quantity of such books? And are they the books he wants to read? How does the public library care for the special reading interests of the foreign-born as compared with its service to English-reading patrons?

Certain facts relating to this question are obtainable from trustworthy sources. The total numbers of volumes in public libraries are found in the *American library directory* (1927); the numbers of foreign books, and their circulation, are given in the *Survey of American libraries* (1927). The cities covered are from all parts of the United States, and are a valid sampling, it is believed, of all American cities.

Some of the facts are presented in Table I. Column *a* gives the percentage of foreign books in the library as compared with the total number of volumes. Column *b* gives the percentage which the foreign-born of the city (exclusive of those whose mother-tongue is English) are of the total population. For the purposes of this paper the number of foreign-born residents is used as an index of the number of potential non-English-reading patrons of the public library. While the two are not identical, the relationship is consistent and close. Column *c* gives the number of books per capita for the whole population, and

column *d*, the number of foreign books per capita to the foreign-born population.

The table is read as follows: In Chicago, for example, 2.62 per cent of the books in the public library are in a foreign language. Chicago, according to the table, has a foreign-born population of 26.7 per cent. Chicago furnishes, in its public library, .51 of a book to each member of its population, but only .05 of a book to each member of its foreign-born population. Thus

TABLE I

City	a Per Cent of Foreign Books in Library	b Per Cent of Foreign-born in City	c Number of Books per Capita of Population	d Foreign Books per Capita of Foreign-Born
Boston.....	17.06	22.6	1.85	1.40
Buffalo.....	4.39	21.3	.99	.26
Chicago.....	2.62	26.7	.51	.05
Cleveland.....	6.17	27.5	1.32	.29
Hartford.....	4.47	23.5	1.16	.22
Jersey City.....	1.82	20.1	.94	.08
Los Angeles.....	4.38	16.6	1.12	.25
Minneapolis.....	3.11	21.8	1.22	.18
New York*.....	9.83	30.5	.22	.07
Pittsburgh.....	8.64	16.8	1.02	.52
Portland, Ore.....	1.06	15.9	1.66	.11
St. Louis.....	7.23	11.7	.89	.55
St. Paul.....	2.45	19.8	1.49	.18
Seattle.....	1.40	19.9	1.23	.08
Syracuse.....	1.86	15.2	.90	.11
Washington.....	1.62	5.2	.71	.22

* Circulation Department.

from the table it is apparent that the supply of foreign books is by no means proportional to the supply of English books. Patrons who read no English have fewer books to read.

This situation is perhaps both natural and desirable. But the question at once arises: Will the foreigner read even if the books are supplied? A tentative effort to meet this question is made in Table II.

In this table, column *a* gives again the number of books per capita of population; column *b* gives the circulation per capita of population, i.e., the number of books, on the average, that

each person reads during one year. Column *c* gives the number of foreign books per capita of the foreign-born population; and column *d*, the circulation per capita of foreign-born population.

The table is read as follows: Chicago has .51 of a book per person for all books, and each person reads (on the average) 3.26 books per year. The same city has .05 of a book in foreign languages per foreign-born inhabitant; and each of these persons reads (on the average) .32 books per year. A study of the table

TABLE II

CITY	ALL BOOKS		FOREIGN BOOKS	
	^a Books Population	^b Circulation Population	^c Books Population	^d Circulation Population
Chicago.....	.51	3.26	.05	.32
Cleveland.....	1.32	6.02	.29	1.08
Hartford.....	1.16	3.38	.22	.20
Jersey City.....	.94	4.18	.08	.18
Los Angeles.....	1.12	6.62	.25	1.36
Minneapolis.....	1.22	4.56	.18	.35
New York.....	.22	1.94	.07	.28
Pittsburgh.....	1.02	2.81	.52	.30
St. Paul.....	1.49	6.19	.18	.24
Seattle.....	1.23	6.76	.08	.33
Washington.....	.71	2.39	.22	.34

shows that, generally speaking, the larger the number of books per person, the more on the average each person reads.¹ This is true for both the English and the foreign-born reader.

This is encouraging. It implies that the foreign collections in the public libraries are successfully performing their functions as compared with the total collection. But is the picture complete? Are these precisely the data which describe the needs of the non-English reader and the degree to which the library is meeting such needs?

Suppose that instead of the average number of books which each person in the community, and each foreign-born person, reads in one year, we consider the number of times, on the

¹ For all books R of books per cap/circulation = .79; for foreign books R of books per cap/circulation = .41.

average, that each book in the collection is read in one year. For such data show whether the books supplied to the non-English reader are those he wants to read. The conventional circulation figures, i.e., data on the number of readers, do not apply to this highly significant question. So far as the quality of the books is concerned, such figures merely indicate that some books of the specified class are read by the number of patrons reported.

Table III gives, in column *a*, the number of books per capita for all books; column *b* shows the circulation per book for one

TABLE III

City	^a Books per Capita—All Books	^b Circulation per Book—All Books	^c Books per Capita—Foreign Books	^d Circulation per Book—Foreign Books
Chicago51	6.83	.05	6.24
Cleveland	1.32	6.19	.29	3.62
Hartford	1.16	3.12	.22	.94
Jersey City94	5.33	.08	2.02
Los Angeles	1.12	7.79	.25	4.62
Minneapolis	1.22	4.49	.18	1.95
New York22	3.71	.07	4.24
Pittsburgh	1.02	3.29	.52	.56
St. Paul	1.49	4.48	.18	1.33
Seattle	1.23	5.96	.08	3.94
Washington71	4.12	.22	1.48

year. Column *c* gives the number of books in foreign tongues per capita of foreign population; column *d*, the circulation per book for one year for the foreign books.

This table is read as follows: Chicago has .51 books per capita of population which circulate at an average of 6.83 times each per year. The same city has .05 books in a foreign language per capita of the foreign-born population which circulate at an average of 6.24 times per book per year. A study of the table shows that, generally speaking, the greater the number of books per capita, the larger is the circulation per book. This holds for the English books.¹ This is an indication, then, that the collections of these books in public libraries are what the merchant

¹ For all books R of books per capita to circulation per book = .14.

would call "live," that is, they circulate; they are what the public wants.

But when we come to consider the foreign collection, the evidence points the other way. The size of the foreign collections has no positive relationship to the circulation per volume.¹ In some cases we have comparatively large collections, with a very small circulation per book (e.g., Pittsburgh); and in other cases we have comparatively small collections with a large circulation per book (e.g., Chicago). The obvious interpretation of these facts is that in the large collections which have a small circulation per volume a great many of the books do not appeal of the foreign-born reader. This conclusion is supported by statements in the *Survey of American libraries* where one library reports: "Our present collection of foreign books is largely the result of advice from a few highly educated foreigners in each field, and this is responsible for the fact that we lack the popular type which is really in demand."² Another library reports: "It has been our policy . . . not to buy foreign literature in the original language, but to buy everything we could learn of in a foreign language that was a translation of American literature . . . etc."³ And this in a library in a city which has a foreign-born population of 32.3 per cent!

In this same connection, it is significant that in all of the libraries reported the percentage of the foreign books which are in French and German is well over 50 per cent. Now, the number of French-born in the cities under consideration is so small as to be negligible; and the number of German-born runs on the average well below 15 per cent of the total foreign population.

Considering the different language groups individually, some interesting differences appear. The city of Cleveland had, according to the census of 1920, 26,476 German-born inhabitants. For these people there are 20,769 books, which circulated 42,669 times, or 2.06 times per book per year. Cleveland had, in 1920, 35,024 Polish-born, and 4,517 books to supply them. These 4,517 books circulated 29,563 times, an average of 6.55 times per book.

¹ For foreign books R of books per capita to circulation per book = -.03.

² *Op. cit.*, III, 236.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 233.

The average circulation for all the books in the Cleveland library was 6.19; so it is evident that the Polish read their little collection of 4,517 volumes just a bit more than the average book was read. The Germans read theirs about one-third as often as the average.

Chicago in 1920 had 102,095 Russian-born. For them they had the amazing number of 1,968 books. These circulated 13,718 times, an average of 6.97 per book. The average circulation of all the books in the Chicago Library was 6.83.

Which of the foreign-born do not read the books which are provided for them?

Table IV shows something of the relative reading-frequencies for the different nationalities. The population figures are from the thirteenth census of the United States (1920). The numbers show the foreign-born in each city, of each language group. It should be noted that this does not include all of the population who read any given language. It is entirely probable that many born in this country of foreign-speaking parents would also read books in their mother-tongues.

Under each language are two figures. The first gives the number of books in the language which are in the public library, for each foreign-born person whose mother-tongue the language is. The second figure gives the circulation per book for the year 1926. It should be observed that the book statistics are for 1926, while the population statistics are for 1920. This, however, renders the interpretation more reliable, since there is small likelihood that the foreign-born population in a city has appreciably decreased during those years. If it were possible to obtain statistics for the same year, the comparison would doubtless be less favorable to the library.

Column *q* gives the figures for all foreign books; column *r* for all books; and column *s* the per cent of illiteracy for the foreign-born of both sexes over ten years of age.

Thus we see that in Cleveland, for example, there is (col. *k*, l. 4) .15 of a book in Polish for each foreign-born Pole; and these books circulate on an average of 6.54 times per year. The average circulation for all foreign books in Cleveland (col. *q*, l. 4)

TABLE IV

City	a ARABIC		b ARMENIAN		c CZECH-SLOVAK		d DUTCH		e FINNISH		f FRENCH		g GERMAN		h GREEK		i ITALIAN		j NORWEGIAN-DANISH	
	Bla. Cap.	Circ.	Bla. Cap.	Circ.	Bla. Cap.	Circ.	Bla. Cap.	Circ.	Bla. Cap.	Circ.	Bla. Cap.	Circ.	Bla. Cap.	Circ.	Bla. Cap.	Circ.	Bla. Cap.	Circ.	Bla. Cap.	Circ.
1. Boston.....	40.5	8.23927
2. Buffalo.....	3.9560
3. Chicago.....	.06	1.95	.09	3.84	.02	5.84	.04	1.36	.26	1217	5.55	3.31	.05	6.81	243	11520	1.12	.02	4.07
4. Cleveland.....	.28	6.52	.32	1.00	.08	4.33	.42	.69	.79	2.03	4.04	1.70	4.97	2.03	.22	2.24	.19	2.89	.80	.63
5. Hartford.....19	.27	2.20	.72	.90	.91	.14	.77	.07	1.11	1.59	.40
6. Jersey City.....89	.97	.25	1.4903	3.20
7. Los Angeles.....	.362949	1.65	.3014	1.81	3.04	.34	5.51	.16	1.46	.19	2.98	203	23
8. Minneapolis.....	2.42	.71	.29	1.4720
9. New York.....31	4.7392	3.15	.14	4.1503	2.84	.02	2.01
10. Pittsburgh.....	8.71	.25	.93	.3122	.66
11. Portland, Ore.....	4/39712	1.1011431609
12. St. Louis.....135	5.4863152555
13. St. Paul.....	2.49	.55	.15	2.8821	.64	.11	.93
14. Seattle.....	1.36	1.98	.21	3.16
15. Syracuse.....	.27	1.231504
16. Washington.....	2.57	2.02	.44	1.23	1.46

TABLE IV—Continued

CITY	POLISH		RUMANIAN		RUSSIAN		SPANISH		SWEDISH		YIDDISH, HEBREW		ALL FOREIGN		ALL BOOKS		LITERACY (Foreign- Born)
	Bla. Cap.	Circ.	Bla. Cap.	Circ.	Bla. Cap.	Circ.	Bla. Cap.	Circ.	Bla. Cap.	Circ.	Bla. Cap.	Circ.	Bla. Cap.	Circ.	Bla. Cap.	Circ.	
1. Boston.....					.36		.28.3		.20		.06		1.40		1.85		9.9%
2. Buffalo.....	.07										.13		.26		.59		13.5
3. Chicago.....	.03	16.81	42/2228	.64	.12	.697	.60	3.73	.04	1.37	.05	6.49	.05	6.24	.51	6.83	11.6
4. Cleveland.....	.15	6.54	.12	1.69	.15	2.52	4.51	1.29	.51	.82	.18	2.32	.29	3.62	.32	6.19	13.1
5. Hartford.....	.03	2.66			.26	.53	2.42	.51	.19	.52	.38	3.15	.22	.94	1.16	3.12	13.2
6. Jersey City.....	.03	9.98									.09	1.57	.08	2.02	.94	5.33	12.5
7. Los Angeles.....	.14	2.52	.05		.35	6.13	.33	6.05	.14	3.25	.34	5.02	.25	4.62	1.12	7.79	7.3
8. Minneapolis.....									.16		.18	3.10	.18	1.95	1.22	4.49	3.9
9. New York.....	.05	4.13			.08	5.76	.19	3.21	.03	.61	.03	7.12	.07	4.24	.22	3.71	13.8
10. Pittsburgh.....	.30	1.62			.35	.73	7.23	.54	.41	.39	.43	1.06	.52	.56	1.02	3.29	14.9
11. Portland, Ore.....	.13		.02		.09		.58		.03		.18		.11		1.66		5.8
12. St. Louis.....	.22		.19		.37		2.46		.48		.20		.55		.89		10.1
13. St. Paul.....	.24	.78	.47	.08	.17	1.79	1.91	.67	.12	.73	.21	1.39	.18	1.33	1.49	4.48	5.3
14. Seattle.....					.38	10.55			.04	3.76			.08	3.94	1.23	5.96	3.6
15. Syracuse.....	.10				.02		1.14		.30		.12		.11		.90		16.2
16. Washington.....													.22	1.48	.71	4.12	6.1

is 3.62 times per year; so the Poles read their library books nearly twice as much as the average foreign-born. The average circulation for all books in this city (col. *r*, l. 4) is 6.19 times per year; the Poles, therefore, use their books slightly more than the average for all readers, native and foreign.

There is no consistent relationship between the number of books per capita and the circulation per book. A glance at any of the columns will make this evident. Two possibilities, therefore, present themselves. Either some nationalities read more than others, or the books in certain libraries are better chosen than those in others.

The latter seems more probable. If we consider, for example, column *m*, which gives the data for Russian books, we observe the following: Chicago has .12 books per person, and they circulate 6.97 times per year. Cleveland has .15 books per person (a few more) but they circulate only 2.52 times per year. Yet it seems scarcely probable that the Russians in Chicago are readers, while those in Cleveland are not. Hartford has .26 books per person in Russian (nearly twice as many per capita), but they circulate only .53 times per year; while Los Angeles, with .35 books per person in Russian (still more), has a circulation of 1.13 per year. It seems reasonable, therefore, to conclude that the circulation depends upon the type of book, since it evidently depends upon no other factor that has been mentioned.

Could it depend upon the illiteracy factor? Probably not. Hartford has an illiteracy per cent of 13.2 for foreign-born, and a circulation of .94 for all foreign books; Cleveland has an illiteracy per cent of 13.1 (almost the same), but a circulation of 3.62.¹

Several questions remain. The first is one which cannot be answered by facts. It involves a question of values or of public-library philosophy. It is this: "Is it the function of the public library to furnish to the foreign reader the same types of recreational reading (in its broadest sense) that it furnishes to the English reader?"

If this question is answered in the affirmative, it then becomes

¹ *R* of illiteracy per cent to circulation = -.25.

necessary to set up a technique for book selection for the foreign-language books. What types of books do foreigners like to read? Are they the same types as those preferred by American readers? Is the type constant for the various foreign nationalities? If not, what problems are peculiar to certain national groups living in this country? Is it possible to obtain foreign books adequately treating these problems? Are any of them treated adequately in English books?

It will also be found worth while to inquire concerning the criteria now used in public libraries in the selection of foreign books. It is possible by means of data available to arrive at conclusions concerning the relative usefulness and appeal of existing collections. It will be enlightening to compare the methods of selection used in the satisfactory and the unsatisfactory collections.

A sensible approach to some of these problems, at least in so far as they concern reading interests, might consist in an analysis of the news-stand publications of foreign countries, and in the analysis of the content of the most read and the least read foreign-book collections in American public libraries.

WILLIAM M. RANDALL

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THE CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

BECAUSE the *Library quarterly*, although addressed primarily to the library profession, will contain material contributed by authorities from other fields, and because readers may not be expected to know in every case the qualifications of contributors from our own profession, the editors have decided to include in each issue this page of personal data, for the information of readers.

GENEVA DRINKWATER holds the degrees of Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Science from the University of Missouri. She has done graduate study at Bryn Mawr, and is a Master of Arts of the University of Chicago; and she has occupied a chair of history at Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri. She spent the year just past in Italy, as a fellow of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago. The account of her experiences should prove an interesting introduction to the scholarly contributions which her sojourn there will enable her to make to the history of printing in Italy.

FREDERICK PAUL KEPPEL, A.B., LITT.D., LL.D., was born on Staten Island in 1875, and is a graduate of Columbia University, where he was later dean of the college. He was an assistant secretary of war during 1918-19, and the director of the foreign operations of the American Red Cross during the following year. Since he has been for some years the president of the Carnegie Corporation of New York, it is particularly fitting that he should contribute the history of the relations between this Corporation and the University of Chicago which culminated in the establishment of the Graduate Library School.

HERBERT PUTNAM, A.B., LITT.D., LL.D., was born in New York City in 1861, and received his Bachelor's degree from Harvard. He later studied law at Columbia and was admitted to the bar in 1886. He alternated library work and law practice until 1899, when he was appointed librarian of Congress. The idea of consultants at the Congressional Library, which he explains in the article in this issue, is one of interest not only to librarians, but to the entire world of scholarship.

WILLIAM MADISON RANDALL, PH.D., was born in Belleville, Michigan, in 1899, and received his Bachelor's and Master's degrees from the University of Michigan, and the degree of Doctor of Philosophy from the Hartford Theological Seminary. He was (1923-24) senior

classifier in the library of the University of Michigan, from which place he went to be curator of the Ananikian Collection of Arabic manuscripts at the Hartford Seminary Foundation. He was, in 1928, one of the party of American librarians sent to the Vatican Library by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Since 1929 he has been associate professor of library science in the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago.

ERNEST JAMES REECE, PH.B., was born in 1881, and received his degree and his library training at Western Reserve University. He has also studied in the graduate schools at Oberlin and at the University of Illinois. He has held many positions in libraries and in library schools, and has been since 1926 associate professor of library administration in the School of Library Service at Columbia University. He is particularly fitted by experience and training to contribute studies, similar to that appearing in this issue, concerning the organization and curriculum of library schools.

FLOYD WESLEY REEVES, PH.D., was born in South Dakota in 1890, and received the degree of Bachelor of Science from Huron College, South Dakota, in 1915. He has studied at the University of Wisconsin and at the University of Chicago, from the latter of which he received the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in 1925. He has had wide experience in administration and teaching in various institutions of higher education; and has been identified with various surveys of educational institutions, and particularly with the Bureau of School Service of the University of Kentucky. He has been a professor of education at the University of Chicago since 1929. His close personal knowledge of many institutions eminently qualifies him to contribute to the study of the functions of college libraries.

JOHN DALE RUSSELL, M.A., received his degrees from the University of Indiana, where he is now completing the work for a doctorate. As assistant director of the educational survey of the institutions sponsored by the Board of Education of the Methodist Episcopal church, he has been in close touch with a representative lot of colleges; and in this survey and in the present survey of the University of Chicago he has been associated with Dr. Reeves, who is the director of both. He has added to the latter's contribution his own knowledge from first-hand contacts with many institutions.

DOUGLAS WAPLES, PH.D., was born in Philadelphia in 1893. He holds a Bachelor's degree from Haverford College, and Master's degrees from this school and from Harvard University; and has done

graduate study at the University of London and at the University of Pennsylvania, from the latter of which he holds the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. He has held professorships in education at Tufts, at the University of Pittsburgh, and at the University of Chicago. He has been associated with the Graduate Library School since its beginning, as professor of educational method, and as acting dean since the summer of 1930. It is to be expected, therefore, that he should be able to present, as he has done, a reliable account of the policies and aims of this School.

CHARLES CLARENCE WILLIAMSON, PH.D., LITT.D., was born in Salem, Ohio, in 1877. He has studied at Ohio Wesleyan, at Western Reserve University, at the University of Wisconsin, and at Columbia University, from the latter of which he received the Doctor's degree in 1907. He has held various positions in public, reference, and university libraries, and has been since 1926 director of the Columbia University libraries and of their School of Library Service, and professor of library administration. The high quality of his scholarship is nowhere better shown, perhaps, than in the accompanying article.

THE COVER DESIGN

REPRODUCTIONS of famous printers' marks, drawn from photostats of the actual devices, will appear regularly on covers of the *Library quarterly*. These printers' marks, about which a voluminous literature has grown up, undoubtedly represent what are, for our modern use, conventional trademarks.

Our first design, the device of the Aldine Press, is so well known that it scarce needs introduction to our readers, but we are proceeding from the known to the unknown, without regard to historical sequence or beauty of design. The devices of Robert Estienne and Christophe Plantin will next be reproduced.

The dolphin and anchor first appeared among the illustrations of Francesco Colonna's *Poliphili hypnerotomachia*, printed by Aldus Manutius in December, 1499, and were soon afterward employed in his device. The design was evidently copied from an old Roman coin bearing the motto "*Festina lente*," or "Make haste slowly." In symbolical language the dolphin stands for swiftness and the anchor for stability. The device continued in use throughout the existence of the Aldine Press, and was widely imitated and counterfeited.

REVIEWS

The Organization of knowledge and the system of the sciences. By HENRY EVELYN BLISS. New York: Holt, 1929. Pp. xx+433. \$5.00.

This book is the most thorough discussion of the philosophical problems involved by our standard theories of library classification that has yet been written. As such it promises to become a classic for the subject. The thought is clear, its expression precise, and the argument thoroughly convincing. From beginning to end the author has achieved an enviable standard in his exposition. Granting his premises, one is led irresistibly to accept his somewhat startling conclusions. If classification is what Mr. Bliss believes it to be there can be no doubt that our libraries should be reclassified.

Recognition of this thoroughgoing competence and permanent value for its kind does not imply a belief that Mr. Bliss's discussion is in any way final. Its ultimate contribution to the subject is always conditioned by the school of thought to which he belongs. Despite his seeming originalities, Mr. Bliss is fundamentally orthodox. He may be a revolutionary reformer but he is not a radical.

He is, of course, a philosopher where Melvil Dewey is only a logician, but they accept the same axioms and arrive at conclusions which are the same in principle, however much their details may vary. Both assume a strict parallelism between the world of knowledge and the world of books, which is a record of knowledge. They agree in the belief that any relationship which may be demonstrated for the one field must be equally potent in the other. They likewise both seem frequently to conceive the world of books as a sort of racial mentality and to attribute to it active intellectual processes.

Because knowledge is a subjective reconstruction of an objective unified cosmos, or of what appears to be such, it is necessarily an orderly and organic whole. So far as books are complete and truthful records of knowledge units, they will display the same patterns of order and organism. But outside of a few technical papers books are seldom unadulterated knowledge. Most of them bear a subjective element in their choice of knowledge units; many of them record subjective emotional reactions; a few of them are purely aesthetic documents. Only according to the degree of their objectivity are they amenable to classification according to a system of the sciences. Perhaps most of them can be located roughly on the chart of knowledge, some with a precision that will satisfy every utilitarian need, a few in minute accuracy, while another few will always gerrymander weirdly, unless one manhandles them. Thus canons of classification which are derived, as most such canons are,

from the literature of the exact sciences become meaningless as one penetrates the realm of humanistic literature. To discuss classification as an entity is to assume for the whole what is true for only specific parts. To argue that deviation from a strict parallelism between knowledge and library classification should, or even can, be corrected is to posit three-dimensionalism for a many-dimensional universe.

When all is said and done library classification is and can be no more than a mere empirical equilibrium of divergent forces obtained by compromise. It is a useful time-saving device for intellectual workers. To assume that, because of its usefulness it is a part of the knowledge process itself, is to ignore completely its manifold and necessary inadequacies.

So far as classification is logical it must be developed by a circular and radial pattern. But books and catalogues are obstinately bricklike and bookshelves are hopelessly linear. The logical difficulties introduced by the discovery of new fields of knowledge are mere trifles compared with the incongruities of propinquity which are inevitable in any attempt to transform the polar system of organized knowledge to the rectilinear co-ordinates of bookcases and catalogues. If one starts at any given point and attempts to proceed toward the center he is thrown out again after a few steps to the extremity of an adjacent radius. Movement around any one of the concentric rings is utterly impossible. Theoretically, for example, starting on a radius with a Catalan grammar one is able to proceed to Old Spanish, Vulgar Latin, Indo-European, and approach the center on general linguistics. In practice the actual sequence must be Catalan, Spanish, Portuguese, Provençal, and a dozen French dialects. Theoretically Gröber's *Grundriss* for Romance philology is correlated with Paul's *Grundriss* for the Germanic languages. In practice there can be no transition.

Similarly, in its practical working classification introduces inefficiencies and frustrations in library service which are much more pressing than the theoretical difficulties discussed by Mr. Bliss. In the main it seems to be young and untrained readers who make the largest use of the classified catalogue. Such persons almost always come to the library for a specific and concrete subject. Theoretically the subject classification will reveal to them as the literature of their subject a whole radial segment through several concentric rings. In practice it too often establishes only a point on the outmost periphery. It thus delivers to those who use it most either an exhaustive specialized treatise which they cannot read or an immature dissertation which they should not. What they ought to find is a more generalized work several steps nearer to the center. On the other hand, the person who is well-enough grounded to use the periphery intelligently ordinarily arrives at his specialized material through bibliographical guides other and more adequate than the classified catalogue.

No one can doubt that the adoption of a general classification of books by subject matter has contributed greatly to the efficiency of library practice.

One may suspect, however, that this contribution is not so great as we ordinarily assume. One may even believe that classification has already passed the critical point for diminishing returns. Certainly one may deny that progress in scholarship is nearly so dependent upon library classification as Mr. Bliss seems to assume it is.

Moreover, it would seem that any fruitful discussion of the subject today should demand as prerequisite data a thorough objective and statistical study of the actual workings of the present system for our various types of libraries, readers, and their purposes. Such a study, unhappily, the present book does not incorporate.

PIERCE BUTLER

NEWBERRY LIBRARY

Introduction to cataloging and the classification of books. By MARGARET MANN. Chicago: American Library Association, 1930. Pp. xv + 424. \$3.00.

Librarians have in this book an admirable summing-up and presentation of materials which are indispensable to one who is to instal a cataloguing system or to administer or work in a catalogue department. The order of presentation of subject matter is an interesting one, the classification of books being considered an introduction to the cataloguing process. An exposition of the principles of grouping books is followed by descriptive accounts of the Library of Congress, the Decimal and Cutter systems of classification. The catalogue is then fully discussed in both its structural and its functional aspects. A final chapter on the use that is made of the catalogue is important but too brief.

The physical makeup of the book is excellent. The style is lucid and to the point, clearness being gained by the use of a wealth of illustrative material. The book is fundamental and suggestive and will clear the way for the interested student to seek wider and more advanced fields of cataloguing endeavor.

GRACE KELLEY

JOHN CRERAR LIBRARY

Order work for libraries. By FRANCIS K. W. DRURY. ("Library curriculum studies.") Chicago: American Library Association, 1930. Pp. xii + 260. \$2.25.

This book is the companion volume to the author's *Book selection* which was published simultaneously as the fifth volume of the "Library curriculum studies," the present volume being the sixth in this series of textbooks. The original plan to publish these two books as one was abandoned on recommendation of the library schools which co-operated in the production of the books by using them in mimeographed form for one year and by criticizing them before they were revised for printing. Whether or not the division made will be for the best interests of the students remains to be proved. As it now

stands, all of the routine of "Acquisition up to the delivery of the book to the catalog department," together with two chapters devoted to "Accession methods" and "Mechanical preparation of books," are included in *Order work for libraries*. The skilful teacher will doubtless enliven this routine by teaching it as the technique necessary to the satisfactory culmination of book-selection. Taught by itself, the subject may be as unproductive of the type of order librarians desired by Mr. Drury as was the teaching of cataloguing until it was detached from the study of routines only, and was taught from the broader viewpoint presented in Margaret Mann's *Introduction to cataloging and the classification of books*, another volume in the same series.

The comments in the preceding paragraph are not to be interpreted as criticism of the material in the book itself, for the presentation is clear, logical, and effective. The author's extensive experience in the field was supplemented by the data gathered by the curriculum-study staff from a sampling of various types and sizes of libraries. The teacher or the order librarian will find here the ways in which libraries under differing conditions solve the problems of acquiring material for the use of their readers and staffs.

The chapter headings indicate the scope of the book: "Organization of order work"; "Agents"; "National bibliographies and sales catalogs"; "Acquisition by purchase—books and pamphlets, serials and binding"; "Acquisition by gift and exchange"; "Acquisition of replacements, rental books, material other than books, supplies, and equipment"; "Accession methods"; "Mechanical preparation of books and other accessions"; "Office management"; "Statistics and reports."

Selected references, questions, and projects are added to each chapter. The author states in the Preface that "they are not memory questions, but are proposed as suggestions for further thought, study, and research." If these and other similar questions are used as a basis for classroom discussion, and the problems of book-selection which make order techniques necessary are kept in mind, the teacher should have little difficulty in developing the traits defined by Mr. Drury as required for order librarians and book-selectors.

HARRIET E. HOWE

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Book selection. By FRANCIS K. W. DRURY. ("Library curriculum studies.") Chicago: American Library Association, 1930. Pp. xiv + 369. \$2.75.

Another of the American Library Association's textbook series, this treatment of book selection is altogether beyond criticism as an orderly presentation of methods used by librarians in selecting books. The same procedure was followed in preparing each book of the series. The procedure involves a systematic collection of the duties performed by library workers in the given department and an enumeration of the personal qualities that characterize

the more efficient workers. When the duties and the traits have been identified, they are evaluated by competent critics. The data are written up by a carefully selected author who gives them organization and perspective. The first draft is then tried out in the classrooms of library schools and modified according to the instructors' recommendations.

It is thus to be expected that the result should possess the qualities of completeness and practicality to a marked degree. Mr. Drury's book does. It meets every reasonable requirement that a book should meet in order to acquaint prospective librarians with the best current library practice in selecting books of most value to a given community.

Having said this much, the reviewer may perhaps be permitted to descant briefly on what seems to him to be a serious deficiency in the prevailing methods of book selection as set forth in the volume. This deficiency, for which the author is not to blame, consists in the methods used to diagnose community needs; namely, the community survey, personal contacts, and library records.

It appears from the description that by "community survey" is meant a typical community survey—institutions, public amusements, residential sections, and all the rest. Except for the extremely wasteful method of a house-to-house canvass asking "What do you read?" there is only slight mention of the wide variety of methods used by students of social problems to determine the needs peculiar to each significant social group and, by inference, the needs relatively pertinent to the community as a whole. For all the use that is made of it in public-library parlance, one might suppose that a technique of statistical sampling did not exist. And yet it is upon the determined reliability of a sample that any hope of diagnosing the reading needs of large population groups must depend. There is simply no other way to make an accurate diagnosis of a community's reading needs than to take a reliable sample of each of the constituent groups within the community and then to determine the relative appeal and value to each group of the types of reading matter available. This is because the reliability of group interests can be determined statistically, and has proved to be high.

The validity of circulation records and personal contacts as means of diagnosis is very slight. Circulation records do not as a rule show who reads what. They identify neither the needs of different groups nor the particular subjects on which reading is most in demand, beyond the general classes that are virtually meaningless. Also the circulation of books is obviously useless as a means of defining the reading needs of the 50 per cent who do not read books at the present time because appropriate books are not available. And it is precisely such needs that the librarian must determine as a basis for selecting new books. That chance contacts are unreliable as a means of diagnosing community needs is evident from any comparison between a reliable sample and a miscellaneous group.

If current library practice makes so little use of trustworthy methods for diagnosing demand, it is not surprising that methods of selecting books with

reference to demand are almost entirely arbitrary. The process consists in having the appropriate staff members of the given library pass on the books proposed, after each has familiarized himself with the circulation records and other fugitive data concerning the community. Logically, the selection for a public library (of non-fiction books at least) would appear to involve first an inventory of subjects upon which each literate group will read, and then the selection from publishers' lists of books considered by the staff to be most readable for each group upon each subject.

Preliminary returns from a current study of adult reading contain somewhat striking evidence of the need for the first step. Out of twenty-three subjects selected by public librarians as those on which most non-fiction books circulate, only seventeen topics are placed in the upper fifth of a complete list of contemporary topics by one or more of sixteen representative groups of adults who ranked the topics for relative interest. Of the same twenty-three topics only three are placed in the upper fifth of a list of 115 topics by as many as eight of the sixteen adult groups sampled. The three are: "The next war," "Interesting places in the United States," and "Travel and outdoor life."

On the other hand, the same sort of evidence shows twelve topics dealing with contemporary affairs that are not included in the librarian's list of twenty-three and which are just as interesting to these groups as the three topics just mentioned. It would seem helpful to the book selecting authority in a given library to know what such topics are,—i.e., topics of known interest to a significant proportion of the community and yet topics on which the library contains few books.

It would be encouraging, therefore, to find, somewhere within the textbooks for prospective librarians, a suggestion that book selection should be guided by a continuous, resourceful, and systematic search for facts concerning the community's needs; that such facts demand appropriate methods of investigation and a large amount of hard work; and that hard work is needed both to apply methods developed in other fields and to develop new methods that may prove more effective in diagnosing the needs of library patrons as such.

So regarded, book selection can never be considered either a casual or a routine affair. It becomes a course that should go far to compensate for the necessarily mechanical nature of other library-school courses. It is a subject that should become the point of contact between librarianship and the now vigorous social sciences. It is only through deliberate appropriation of techniques developed by the social scientist that the librarian's knowledge of books can be applied to the satisfaction of the reader's needs. And when to the study of books is added the excitement of studying people, the library-school curriculum should make a stronger and wider appeal.

DOUGLAS WAPLES

GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Reference books of 1929. By ISADORE GILBERT MUDGE, DORIS M. REED, and CONSTANCE M. WINCHELL. Chicago: American Library Association, 1930. Pp. 47. \$0.60.

This pamphlet is an informal supplement to the fifth edition of *Guide to reference books*, compiled by Miss Mudge and her assistants in the reference department of Columbia University Library. For many years the *Library journal* has published in its January issue a summary of the best reference books of the year. The list has grown larger and larger until this year the *Library journal* found it was not able to devote the space necessary for it. The American Library Association immediately undertook the work and published this pamphlet early in the year. It lists 249 of the more important, useful, and interesting of the reference books published in 1929, and some foreign publications of 1928, which were received in this country too late for inclusion in the previous list.

The list is arranged by subjects, such as "Dictionaries," "Sociology," and "Bibliography." At the head of each subdivision is a discussion of the various new books of reference value in that particular field, followed by complete bibliographical descriptions of the books. The section on "Encyclopedias" contains an interesting review of the new edition of the *Encyclopaedia britannica*. This review brings out some of the English tendencies in what is now supposed to be an American publication.

WINIFRED VER NOOY

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Standard catalog for high school libraries: Supplement, 1926-29.

Edited by ZAIDEE BROWN and CLARISSA L. GOOLD. ("Standard catalog series.") New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1930. Pp. xii+296.

The *Standard catalog for high school libraries* has won for itself a deserved position of honor among tools indispensable to the high-school librarian. Published in 1926 with cumulated annual supplements (first, 1926-27; second, 1926-28; third, 1926-29), it provides a well-balanced, timely buying list, the value of which has been recognized by both librarians and school officials.

The present *Supplement* (third, 1926-29) follows, like its predecessors, which it supplants, the arrangement of the original *Catalog*. Part I is a classified list, and Part II a full dictionary catalogue in which over one-fourth of the books are analyzed. Both the classified and the dictionary arrangements are useful to all school librarians, but perhaps the publication makes its strongest appeal to the worker in the small school who has learned to look to it for clues as to classification and cataloguing, and is even constrained, in some cases, to use it in lieu of the card catalogue which she does not know how to make or has not the time for.

The *Supplement* adds 203 book titles and a number of pamphlets to the original *Catalog* and also "includes the 682 books and the pamphlets which made up the second supplement, issued in 1929." In view of the intention of the publishers to issue in 1931 an entirely revised second edition of the *Catalog* itself, we are not surprised to find certain items not so fully expanded in the *Supplement* as might otherwise have been deemed necessary. For example, pictures, lantern slides, and still films are covered by a reprint of the additional list published in the first *Supplement*; prices of pamphlets are not revised, and very few additional pamphlet titles are added.

Like its predecessors, the 1926-29 *Supplement* is free to those who have bought Parts I and II of the *Standard catalog*. To others the cost is \$1.80.

LUCILE F. FARGO

GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS
NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE

Standard catalog for public libraries: History and travel section. Compiled by MINNIE EARL SEARS. ("Standard catalog series.") New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1929. Pp. xiv+285.

This work, which is a section of the *Standard catalog for public libraries*, includes nearly 1,900 titles. The classification is according to the Dewey Decimal system. About 850 titles pertain to history in the close sense of that term, and 1,050 to books of travel and description, antiquities, a few on genealogy, heraldry, and military history. A librarian using this work as a guide to proposed purchases will require the portions of this catalogue dealing with biography, the social sciences [300], and the section pertaining to constitutional history [342]. At this late date it is, perhaps, futile to quarrel with the Dewey Decimal classification. Its singularities have long been known to librarians, e.g., the classification of Roman history (937) before that of Greece (938). But to the mind of the reviewer this work looks like adherence to an obsolete method, when one considers the far wider influence of the Library of Congress classification system.

The editor, in the Preface, writes that "the selection has been made primarily to meet the needs of small and medium sized libraries, but larger libraries as well should find it useful"; upon which observation follows the information that "the selection of titles is limited to books in the English language." One wonders just how "useful" this compilation will be to "larger libraries" under such limitations. Even the occasional fine-print notes refer only to works in English. An imposing list of collaborators is printed on pages vii-viii, most of whom are divisional librarians, but four of whom are university professors of history.

One may take exception to some of the books mentioned, but omissions are more serious than inclusions. For example, Bury's *History of the idea of*



progress does not appear in the section upon the philosophy of history and the history of civilization. Number 907 ("History-study and teaching") omits H. B. George, *Historical evidence*; J. M. Vincent, *Historical research*; A. Johnson, *The Historian and historical evidence*; F. J. Teggart, *Theory of history and his Prolegomena to history*; L. F. Rushbrook, *Four lectures on the handling of historical material*; Frederic Harrison, *Meaning of history*; James Harvey Robinson, *The New history*; F. M. Fling, *Historical method*. Among "Chronologies and outlines" one misses Morison and Rait's excellent *Time table of modern history* (400-1870 A.D.) and John Nichol's equally good *Tables of European history, science and art* (5th ed.; W. R. Jack, ed.; Glasgow, 1909). The list of universal histories (909) might well have included Helmolt, *History of the world* and the *History of all nations* (24 vols.; Philadelphia, 1902-5), the latter being especially valuable as it is an English translation of the volumes in the great German series edited by Oncken. Under Medo-Persia (935) one expects to find A. V. Williams Jackson, *Persia past and present*, whose name and title are in the Index with the observation: "See note at head of class 915.5"—but there is no such class in this volume. One turns to Persia (955) and looks in vain for mention of H. G. Rawlinson's *Seventh great oriental monarchy*, not yet supplanted, or S. G. W. Benjamin's *Persia*. The section on Rome (937) omits Pelham, *Outlines of Roman history*; Martin Nilsson, *Imperial Rome*; Tenney Frank, *Roman imperialism*; Heitland, *The Roman fate*; J. S. Reid, *Municipalities of the Roman empire*; F. F. Abbot's *Roman politics*, and W. T. Arnold, *Roman provincial administration*. Under Ancient Greece (938) it is a pity that H. R. James, *Our Hellenic heritage: the struggle with Persia* (1921); A. M. Shepherd, *Sea power in ancient history*; and A. J. Toynbee, *Greek civilization*, are not found. Lodge's *Close of the middle ages* (1273-1498) is not included with its two partners by Oman and Tout in the "Periods of history" series, under 940 (Medieval Europe). Beazeley's *Dawn of modern geography* (3 vols.) is a strange omission under 940.1, and equally so is that of Sir James Ramsay, *Foundations of England*, and Norgate, *England under the Angevin kings* (2 vols.), under 942.03 (Plantagenet England). The oversight of Mary Bateson, *Medieval England*, is unpardonable. The section on Germany (943) is deplorably brief. At least Richard, *German civilization*, and H. A. L. Fisher, *The Medieval empire* (2 vols.), ought to have been included. The stepmotherly way in which German history is treated when compared with France is evident when it is said that two columns suffice for Germany, while France is given over eight columns. Phillipson's work on Alsace-Lorraine is superior to that of C. D. Hazen (944.38), and H. Morse Stephens, *Revolutionary Europe*, ought to have been cited under 940.2. It is difficult to appraise the matter on Italy, for there is a wealth of local material which is not cited, e.g., Butler, *Lombard communes*; Rawdon Brown, *Venice*; Mrs. Ady, *Milan under the Visconti*; Janet Ross, *Land of Manfred*; Waern, *Sicily*—one might be more extensive. Spain (946)

suffers in like manner, though in less degree, for there are few good works on Spanish history; but one of the best, Ulick Burke's *History of Spain*, is not mentioned.

Sowerby's *Forest cantons of Switzerland* and Dandliker might have divided honors with Oechsli's *History of Switzerland*. The part dealing with the Byzantine Empire and Greece (949.5) omits so much that ought to have been listed that it is execrable. China (951) fails to mention two of the very best of recent works: Wilhelm, *Short history of Chinese civilization*, and Legendre, *Modern Chinese civilization*. It is perhaps unfair to criticize section 954 on India, for the reason that one needs the literature under 915.4 to supplement it, but apparently Holderness, *Peoples and problems of India*, ought to have been cited under 954. Modern Africa (960) would have been improved if the compiler had examined the Bibliography in the last edition of the *Statesman's year book*. The sections on the two Americas are not in the province of the reviewer's special knowledge. As a final word it may be added that to a student of history this compilation is seriously crippled for practical purposes because the section upon biography forms another volume. Dr. Johnson once observed that "a man will turn over half a library to make one book." Many of the works here cited are not worth turning over, and while there are some which a scholar would like to handle, he will not learn of them in this bibliography.

JAMES WESTFALL THOMPSON

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Graded list of books for children. Compiled by NORA BEUST. Chicago: American Library Association, 1930. Pp. 149. \$2.00.

In a period of ten years of casual collecting I have accumulated about fifty reading lists of various kinds which I have kept on hand to meet the demands of inquiring friends. The many reading lists in public-school courses of study I have always regarded with a certain amount of pardonable suspicion. Several recent reading lists prepared with painstaking care have had the forbidding suggestion of the schoolroom. The present list is prepared in the refreshing literary setting of the children's library. I think I may now safely discard my nondescript collection.

One cannot criticize the selected works listed in the *Graded list of books for children* because any one person's selection, at best, can only change the list to a small degree. There remains only to discuss the mode of selecting and grading the books; the kind and amount of information about each title; and the organization of the material for convenient and economical use. The present list, made under the direction of a committee of the American Library Association, is a revision of an earlier compilation made in 1922 by the Elementary School Library Committee of the National Education Association.

A preliminary selection of titles from the *Book list* for January, 1922, to February, 1929, made by Jessie Gray van Cleve, of the American Library Association, was voted upon by over fifty children's librarians and instructors in children's literature. The voters had the privilege of adding titles. The resulting list with additions by the compiler, Nora Beust, was submitted to the directing committee for a vote, a majority constituting a choice. The omissions from the 1922 list were determined by the same procedure as the new titles.

Thus far I have interpreted the procedure as reported by the compiler of the *Graded list*, although certain steps are not entirely clear owing to the brevity of the Foreword. You may pardon a professor of education if he asks a few questions about the technique of the investigation. The reviewer values the list very highly but cannot forego the temptation of asking a few questions and making a few suggestions. How many votes of the original fifty judges constituted a preliminary choice? Or, what other basis was used in compiling the first list to be submitted to the directing committee? Did the directing committee of seven exclude any works which received a substantial vote of the librarians and teachers of children's literature? If not, what was the reason for assigning the final selection to the former? How was the number of titles for each grade level determined? How was the grade range for each book determined?

There are about a dozen studies of the reading interests of children. Taking one of these studies at random, that of Mr. Lancaster reported in the *Elementary school journal* of March, 1928, one finds that of fifteen books rated "fine" by every child eight did not appear in Miss Beust's list. What were the bases for the exclusion of some of these books which are superior in the opinion of children? Was it content, literary merit, or both? It is the reviewer's opinion that children are best judges of what they enjoy, and competent adults are best judges of literary quality and content. Ideally, children should have a part in making a preliminary list from which the inferior books may be eliminated by informed adults.

In making a reading list for children it is necessary to represent their varied interests. What steps did the compiler take to approximate a distribution of books among various types of material such as "animal," "fairy," "folklore," as found in studies of children's voluntary reading?

The bibliographical entries are clear and well arranged, although the date of publication is omitted. The descriptive notes and suggested grades are very helpful. Besides the graded list of books the volume includes suggestions to book-purchasers, shelf of books for the one-room school, a list of reference books for the grades, a directory of publishers, and a complete Index of authors, titles, and subject headings.

HENRY HARAP

WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY

Children's books from twelve countries. Selected by the SECTION FOR LIBRARY WORK WITH CHILDREN OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. Chicago: American Library Association, 1930. Pp. 42.

An attractive and unique book list is *Children's books from twelve countries*. Just how the list originated is described in an article in the *Children's library yearbook*, No. 2. Briefly, it is a contribution from teachers and librarians of the countries represented in the several lists, namely, Czechoslovakia, Italy, France, Spain, Germany, Holland, Poland, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, England, and America.

The compilers state that the lists are the result of contact with many people both in America and in Europe, examination of the output of many publishers and the stock of many bookshops. It is truly, then, a co-operative undertaking, in harmony with the growing internationalism of library work with children, and is based on the practical need of the public library. The list of New York importers is a helpful feature.

Most of the lists are prefaced by an introductory note stating the source of the given list. The publisher and a brief annotation are given for each title. If the illustrations are worthy of mention these are brought out, as are also distinctive editions. If the book is translated into English the title, publisher, and date are indicated. The average length of the lists is thirty titles.

The American list includes recent titles not found on the usual short representative list. *Hitty*, *Millions of cats*, and other recent favorites are here. The list is most refreshing even though the choice of the representative title of an individual author, such as Pyle and Stockton, may be questioned, agreement upon individual titles in any list of prose or poetry being practically unknown.

The desire of those compiling the lists of the individual countries has been that not only the children of the individual countries but the children of all nations shall see and appreciate the songs and stories and pictures of the various lands. The book list will be an aid to book-buying and book selection in children's rooms of large libraries and wherever there is interest in children's books of foreign lands, both from the art side and from the desire to know what are the representative children's books in other lands. It would be helpful if it could be learned to what extent these books represent the children's own choice. Are these the books generally popular with the boys and girls of the given country?

MILDRED HARRINGTON

GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Children's library yearbook. No. 2. Compiled by the COMMITTEE ON LIBRARY WORK WITH CHILDREN OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. Chicago: American Library Association, 1930. Pp. vi + 88.

Library work with children has been growing rapidly in importance during the last decade. An objective evidence of this fact has been the increase in the number of library schools now offering a separate course in this field and the growing demand internationally voiced for children's librarians.

This volume is the second of the yearbooks compiled by a Committee on Library Work with Children and planned to present various phases of the work in order that efficient library service may be rendered to the children in all types of communities, and, it should be added, that a more complete understanding of the field of library work with children may be had by all interested in children's development.

The present *Yearbook* emphasizes four angles: book selection, extension service, training, and scholarships and fellowships for children's librarians. The appendixes are three in number, and, like the first *Yearbook*, contain valuable information, namely: (1) "Bibliography on children's books and reading"; (2) "Library schools specializing in work with children"; (3) "Salary statistics for children's librarians in the United States and Canada"; and (4) "Directory of children's librarians who are members of the American Library Association."

An article on "Children's Book Week: An Appraisal of activities" is a thought-provoking discussion from the richness of years of experience by a well-known children's librarian, Clara W. Hunt. "The 'togetherness' of the publicity is to my mind the chief contribution of Children's Book Week," says Miss Hunt.

The history of the John Newbery medal, as written by Helen Martin, describes the evolution of this award in its relation to the two men most concerned in its history: John Newbery and Frederic Melcher. The conditions of the award, methods of selecting the prize book, and the awards to date are presented.

The discussion of children's book production in 1929 from the point of view of book publishers is both illuminating and valuable—that the market for children's books has more than doubled since 1919 is significant; as also is the resulting fact that four general publishers departmentalized their children's books in 1929.

A most significant article is "A Conception of the children's librarian," by Sarah C. N. Bogle, assistant secretary of the American Library Association. The following quotations indicate present trends of thought toward library work with children:

The last ten years have shown significant changes and developments in library work with children. These should be appraised. . . . A large body of opinion is being formed in regard to children, their opportunity, their education, their recreation.

Unless children's librarians keep in touch with this body of opinion, how are they to make a needed contribution to it? . . . There must be not only understanding, but also a welcoming attitude toward what may be, after all, valuable contributions from the field of psychology, sociology, and educational research. . . . Who can say what shall be the educational and professional preparation of those who are permitted to give, through the library, unending opportunity to the privileged and under-privileged alike. . . . To set up inflexible standards, to lay down unchanging rules, to ignore the necessity for research from the point of view of library service, would at this time do incalculable harm to a most important specialization in education for librarianship. That there must be criteria even during this intermediate period of development is evident.

MILDRED HARRINGTON

GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

A Bibliography of Oliver Cromwell. By WILBUR CORTEZ ABBOTT.
Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1929. \$12.50.

Professor Abbott has been a student of Cromwell and now presents a *Bibliography*. In such a *Bibliography* must necessarily be included works by Cromwell. These are not numerous, outside of the documents put forth by him, and his letters, most of which, however, were in print only years after they were written. Next are included the works about Cromwell. These form the largest proportion of the titles listed (3,520 in all). They are arranged chronologically, and begin with a supposititious item of 1598. Many are contemporary, including those not always favorable. And then after his death begin the histories and biographies, including the monographs. Professor Abbott carries the work up to 1928. In a separate list are portraits and satirical prints.

One of the first questions asked will be, How complete is the *Bibliography*? As far as the works by Cromwell and those directly bearing on him are concerned, Abbott has tried to be complete. As for histories of the times in which Cromwell plays a part, the compiler exercises discrimination and excludes those which are not valuable for their consideration of, or characterization of, Cromwell. Hence readers may find books in which Cromwell is mentioned which are not listed. Similarly in the case of monographs, they must deal directly with Cromwell rather than some phase of the times.

Now as to the method of the *Bibliography*. It includes whole books, volumes taken out of series, pamphlets, and magazine articles. It is arranged alphabetically by author under each year, with full bibliographical details. Annotations are illuminating when given, but are not inserted unless needed.

Now as to the value of the *Bibliography*. Every such list is, or ought to be, of help to the librarian. As bibliographies accumulate, the necessity of searching grows less. Not that the libraries will cease to do research, but every published list will allow time for others, and wasted partial lists are succeeded by permanent exhaustive lists. The student of Cromwell will henceforth have

less practice in making a bibliography but he will have an example of what a bibliography should be when he starts work on another field. The librarian will mark the increasing shelves of such material and will note that the day of lessening the tasks within the library by co-operative efforts has already begun.

There is a Preface of five pages which is a literary gem justifying any bibliography. There is an Introduction of sixteen pages which reviews the course of opinion with regard to Cromwell as expressed by his successive biographers. This Introduction is a monograph of value in itself as it traces through two centuries and a half the development of interest in and admiration of the Protector. The only trouble is that Mr. Abbott has written the thesis that some graduate student might have been started upon.

An examination of the amount and importance of material, in part, as shown in the Introduction, in part as shown by counting the entries, tells us that Cromwell ceased to be an object of interest in the years immediately following his death, when the Restoration was trying to undo all that he did. The number of entries drops from the fifty's and more in the decade ending 1660 to eight, four, three, and so on, with several years having no entry in the *Bibliography*. This lasted all through the eighteenth century. About 1815 the interest seems to increase, and from the publication of the letters by Carlyle in 1845 the increase is notable. The climax is reached in the three-hundredth anniversary year of his birth, 1899, when seventy-four items are recorded. Since then the number has dropped off. Has research revealed about all that is available? Has interpretation settled itself? And, as a result, does this *Bibliography* indicate that the subject is closed?

AUGUSTUS H. SHEARER

GROSVENOR LIBRARY
BUFFALO, NEW YORK

Universal pronouncing dictionary of biography and mythology. By JOSEPH THOMAS. 5th ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1930. Pp. 255. \$12.

Lippincott's *Biographical dictionary* is one of the largest single-volume dictionaries of its kind. The fifth edition of it, which was published during 1930, is a revision of the previous edition published in 1915. It contains short, concise biographical articles on some seventy-five thousand important men and women in the fields of literature, history, and science of all nations, and on many characters in classical, Norse, and Hindu mythology. The entry includes the pronunciation of the names. The pronunciation indicated is as nearly as possible that of the well-educated people in the country to which the name belongs. Very few other biographical dictionaries attempt the tremendous task of indicating pronunciations.

Fifteen pages at the end of the volume contain a Vocabulary of Christian

Names, which is a list of the ordinary Christian names with their equivalents in the various languages of the Continent.

The book is undoubtedly of considerable value as a starting-point for finding information about any individual, but the further one examines the new edition, the more of a disappointment it becomes. The typography is very poor, for the badly worn plates of the second edition, which was copyrighted in 1885, have been used to a large extent. The new material can be picked out at a glance, for the type is new and sharp.

The new articles have been inserted at the sacrifice of some of the material in earlier editions. The twenty-eight lines about Herbert Hoover were inserted by cutting the information about William Hooper, an American patriot and one of the delegates to the first Continental Congress, from seven lines to one, cutting two other articles and omitting three entirely. This cutting and omitting of articles seems to have been done all through the volume so that the publishers would not have to reset their type or add pages to the volume.

There are certain glaring omissions from the list of people included; for example, Julius Rosenwald, the multimillionaire, who has done so much for the education of the colored people and for learning and science in general; William Rockhill Nelson, the well-known editor of the *Kansas City star*; Henry Suzzalo, the educator; and Ernest DeWitt Burton, the New Testament scholar. Although the articles are brief, they should mention the life-work of the various men described. Usually, the editors could have secured the information by consulting the volumes of *Who's who*. Harry Pratt Judson was president of the University of Chicago from 1907 to 1923, which were very important years in the growth of the University; yet the *Dictionary* fails to note the fact and gives Dr. Judson credit for no work other than teaching political science.

The bibliographical footnotes have not been brought up to date. The latest publication mentioned is about 1870, which was the date of the first edition of the book. It is rather annoying to look for references at the end of the article about some of the great literary men, such as Shelley, Wordsworth, or Poe, and find all of the scholarship of the past sixty years ignored. The same is true of some of the historical personages, as Lincoln or Washington, Napoleon or Joffre, about whom so much has been written in recent years. Scientists do not seem to have fared any better, for there are no references to any of the numerous works on Pasteur or Darwin. The list under Priestly's name includes nothing later than 1858.

As Dr. Joseph Thomas, who was the author of the first edition of this work, died in 1891 according to the article in the book itself, why is not the name of the new editor given on the title-page or at least at the end of the Preface? Is it because the editor was ashamed to put his name to this patchwork publication?

WINIFRED VER NOOY

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

A Dictionary of color. By A. MAERZ and M. REA PAUL. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1930. Pp. vii+207.

The compilation of the present volume is a significant indication of the vital part that color is playing in the industrial and commercial life of today. As the English dictionary records words and their meanings according to accepted usage, so, the authors state, this *Dictionary* records color words and the particular color sensations they identify as established by consensus of opinion of existing works at the present time. This work would seem to represent a significant step forward in the direction of standardization of color names.

The choice of color names, the authors report, was determined only after an examination of the entire literature of the subject, and thousands of samples from Europe and America have formed the basis for determining the average colors.

The body of the volume consists of full-page plates of color blocks so arranged as to present a subtly graduated color scheme. A very complete Index makes possible the ready identification of a color name with its corresponding color block. Following the plates is a brief history of color standardization and helpful articles on such topics as "Matching of samples," "Color as affected by surroundings," and notes on color names.

The Appendixes contain: (1) a list of terms found in literature on color, covering fields of art, industry, and research; (2) a table of frequency of use of the principal color names; (3) a table of standard textile color names; and (4) a bibliography of authorities chronologically arranged.

As stated in the Preface, this book is designed for the individual who seeks to relate colors with names by which they are commonly identified. The book will be a valuable reference tool not only for individuals but for dye concerns, art classes, and all agencies interested in color identification. Although the volume is large, the makeup is so attractive and the information presented in so readable a manner that it will be enjoyed by the layman as well as the specialist.

Summarizing the foregoing, *A Dictionary of color* appears to be a significant contribution in the field of color study. It is thorough and reveals definite nomenclature. It provides a great deal of source material through its bibliography. The plates are rendered in a most subtle manner and reflect the more subtle attitude toward color study today.

MILDRED HARRINGTON

GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Catalogue of dramatic portraits in the Theatre Collection of the Harvard College Library. By LILLIAN ARVILLA HALL. Vol. I: A-E. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1930. Pp. vii+438.

An important addition to the reference library is being made by the publication of this *Catalogue*, which is to provide a descriptive index to the engraved dramatic portraits in the Theatre Collection at Harvard College. The prints number approximately forty thousand, and consist of portraits of individuals, chiefly British and American, whose names are associated with the past and present history of the drama. The Preface explains also that the form of the *Catalogue* is modeled after the *Catalogue of engraved British portraits* in the British Museum.

The arrangement of the *Catalogue* is alphabetic according to names, personal portraits of actors preceding portraits in character, the latter being arranged alphabetically according to rôles. The best-known professional name has been used with cross-references from less familiar names. The form of entry is sufficiently consistent with cataloguing rules to make this book a further aid to the identification of names for cataloguing purposes. The immediate resources of the Harvard College Library were searched for dates of birth and death which are noted, together with the individual's professional speciality. When these are lacking the date and place of the individual's professional début or of any readily available engagement have been given.

Each portrait has a brief description, including the actual measurements, the kind of engraving, whenever possible the reference to the published book if the portrait has appeared as a plate, the artist, and the engraver. The references to groups, scenes, and caricatures are to a later-print catalogue which is to include these subjects.

The reference librarian will hope that there will also be indexes to the artists and engravers, as well as to the plays and the rôles, although the Preface makes no mention of such plans for the future volumes.

The author remarks that the Theatre Collection at Harvard, in which the prints described in this *Catalogue* are deposited, ranks among the world's greatest collections of theatrical memorabilia. Although primarily for the use of Harvard College students, the Collection is available to individuals situated at a distance, through photostatic reproductions of printed and manuscript material which are readily procurable.

HARRIET E. HOWE

GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Library extension: Annual report, 1929-30. By the COMMITTEE ON LIBRARY EXTENSION OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. Chicago: American Library Association, 1930. Pp. 24.

The Committee on Library Extension states:

Widening circles of interest in library extension and understanding of its problems are evident at the end of three and a half years of active work. . . . Some of the Committee's dreams have come true this year—a conference of national leaders to discuss methods of furthering library extension; a program of direct financial aid for library extension on the part of an educational foundation; an institute for the discussion of extension problems; an assistant at Headquarters to help handle the growing work; an A.L.A. regional field agent for the South.

Some of the problems ahead are: more intensive field work in other sections beside the South; financial aid for state and county library demonstrations; the study and improvement of county and state library laws, and of financial support for libraries; development of large units other than the county; a stronger and a larger extension personnel for county library work; research studies of county library service on the part of both experienced library extension workers and rural sociologists, through fellowships generous enough to provide for field work as well as study in residence.

One accredited library school only—the University of California—is now giving special preparation for this type of library service.

One of the important developments of the year was the interest of the Julius Rosenwald Fund in county libraries in the South. . . . The Trustees of the Fund . . . voted a generous sum of money . . . to help especially in the establishment or strengthening of county libraries which would serve the whole population, rural and urban, white and colored, and would be demonstrations of the value of county libraries. . . . The grants made . . . have been contingent on public appropriations, and cover a five year period with the grant diminishing from year to year and the appropriation increasing. . . . Other requirements are a budget of at least fifty cents per capita, a plan of service to all the people of the county . . . and a trained librarian.

The *Report* reviews the work of the year as carried on in the field, through publicity, publications, and consulting service, and makes an accounting of the moneys spent. An additional statement is made of extension developments, and the Appendix is devoted to a discussion of state aid for library development, under the headings of "The Present situation," "The Future," and "Endorsements," followed by a short bibliography.

HARRIET E. HOWE

GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Sixth annual report of the Board of Education for Librarianship, 1929-1930. Chicago: American Library Association, 1930. Pp. 30.

This *Annual report* in its letter of transmittal to the Council makes note of two changes in membership of the Board, the resignation of Adam Strohm, who was the able chairman for several years, and the appointment of James I. Wyer as Mr. Strohm's successor.

The text of the *Report* is called "Problems and Tendencies in Education for Librarianship," and the discussion is a retrospect of the year 1929-30. Curricula in librarianship; supply of library-school graduates and the demand for them; transfer of credits; the teaching load; training-class instruction; library terminology; scholarships, fellowships, and loan funds; curriculum-study books; revision of the *Minimum standards for library schools*; the library schools; the education of the school librarian; and co-operation with educational associations and foundations are the topics treated. The Appendix contains the list of library schools accredited for 1929-30, the accredited summer courses in library science 1929, changes in library schools (not limited to accredited schools), tables giving facts about the enrolments of the accredited schools, followed by a list of scholarships and fellowships of interest to librarians.

Attention is called to the

rapid increase in the number of institutions that have established, or wish to establish, a curriculum of at least one year in librarianship. . . . Whenever possible, state or regional conferences have been urged for the purpose of bringing together all interests concerned in the training of librarians for a particular region, and to foster a state or regional program for such training.

In regard to the possible oversupply of trained workers the Board states:

The day of an oversupply of graduates having a knowledge of service in specialized fields, possessing qualities of leadership, imbued with high professional ideals and enthusiasms is far off. . . . It can safely be asserted that there is no oversupply of librarians for important administrative positions in public as well as in college and university libraries. The same is true of members of faculties for library schools and deans or directors of such schools or departments of library science. The difficulty of securing leaders to direct education for librarianship and to develop an acceptable personnel with sufficient scholarship and adequate technique is evident to the presidents of institutions of higher learning and to members of the library profession.

The following quotation from the "report of the President of that Corporation which has done most to advance education for librarianship" is thought-provoking for all library schools.

It is far less important, for example, that any system of requirements should be rigidly followed in the interest of high standards than that the way should be made easy

¹ Carnegie Corporation of New York, *Report of the President for the year ended September 30, 1929* (New York, 1929), pp. 12-14.

for able men with scholarly tastes and training in letters to shift from the overcrowded field of English teaching, or preparation therefor, to librarianship, where their intellectual qualifications and their sex combine to offer a bright professional future.

This suggestion from Dr. Keppel is a challenge to existing conditions. According to the figures given in the tables appended to the Board's *Report for 1928-1929* there were 4.5 per cent of the students enrolled in the accredited library schools during 1928-29 who already held a Master's or Doctor's degree. The figures for 1929-30 unfortunately are incomplete. Little effort is being made to relate professional study to the field of knowledge already familiar to these masters or doctors, and little attention is paid to the possibility of expediting the path to the doctorate for those not already holding it. These conditions continue regardless of the fact that many of the leading positions in the last five years have been filled by those who have had no library education and often no library experience but who have had the discipline of the graduate school and have received the Ph.D. degree. Subordinate positions are held and are being filled by those who have had professional training, but an increasing number of positions as directors of the great public and university libraries are being filled by scholars who have had no professional training.

Therefore Dr. Keppel's suggestion may well receive attention from all library schools as they raise their entrance requirements, advance their degrees, and plan their curriculums. If this attention is given, the search for directors of great libraries and for librarians of special-subject collections should be a less arduous task in another five years, because librarians of experience are now studying for advanced degrees, and "able men with scholarly tastes" are being guided toward librarianship as a career.

HARRIET E. HOWE

GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

The Magic of the book: More reminiscences and adventures of a bookman. By WILLIAM DANA ORCUTT. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1930. Pp. xi+314.

This book is a disappointment, for the title leads one to believe that, perchance, the author has caught some of the magic that lies in books and has been able to transmute that magic into words which will convey to the reader something of its subtle charm. The contrary is true, however, for Mr. Orcutt has failed to perform the transmutation, much to our regret, for we need an essayist who can transmit to his readers the charm, or magic if you will, of the earlier printed books and the fascination of the study of typography, just as Mr. A. Edward Newton has been able to communicate to thousands the charm and fascination of the great books of English literature. Mr. Newton helped

mightily to create, or to stimulate, the current vogue for book-collecting. We fear Mr. Orcutt's prosaic book will never have the same effect in awakening interest in typography and the study of early printed books. To continue the comparison, Mr. Newton uses the most intimate pronoun in such a way that few can, or do, take offense. In other words, Mr. Newton possesses that rare quality of humor which enables its possessor to see and tell a joke upon himself with quite as much, if not more, gusto than one on another person. Mr. Orcutt either has no sense of humor or fails to indicate it, for his book is singularly lacking in this respect. In fact, there is none of those delightfully intimate tales about books that do so much to make a book about books interesting and absorbing to the reader. Were not Mr. Orcutt so obviously trying to ride in on the wave which received its momentum from *The Amenities of book collecting*, this point would be poorly taken.

Chapter i, dealing with the lineage of the University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, of which Mr. Orcutt was the typographical director for many years, contains no new information. It merely serves to acquaint the reader in the most matter-of-fact way with the history of an old institution. It recounts the names of those who were important in the typographical history of colonial New England, or, rather, Cambridge. It leaves one well posted on names and dates, but with little otherwise. The same may be said of chapter ii, in which the story of the great Vatican Library is told in the same prosaic manner. In lieu of both of these chapters, the reader might much better turn to the two volumes mentioned in the Bibliography, following the Index on page 315, to wit: Roden's *The Cambridge Press* and Tisserant and Koch's *The Vatican Library*.

By far the best essay in the volume is that entitled "The Language of type" (chap. iii). Here the author comes the closest to sinking into an easy chair, stretching his legs, lighting his pipe, and settling down for a good, genial afternoon chat on why type tells a story. But not quite, for he sits quite properly in his chair since there must be no levity about this matter of type; it has a serious significance and must be treated with due consideration. Nevertheless, in this chapter he does give us a glimpse of what a companion and guide he could be if he would but let himself go. Incidentally, in his Bibliography Mr. Orcutt fails to list one of the finest books on typography, Daniel Berkley Updike's *In the day's work*, in which a master-printer of the first rank explains his conception of his work, a book which should, by all means, be read by everyone interested in printing.

"In Quest of Sweynheym and Pannartz" and "Bodoni at home" are unimaginative accounts of some of the great printers of Italy, a country for which Mr. Orcutt has a well-deserved enthusiasm and about which he has written much. About two-thirds of the last chapter is devoted to the history of the Library of Congress and the contents of the Vollbehr Collection so recently purchased for that Library by the authority of the Seventy-first Con-

gress. There isn't a librarian or a book-lover in the country who isn't pleased because of the transaction, for it indicates that Congress is alive to, or can be awakened to, the importance of the national library, and is jealous of its rank among the great libraries of the world.

Mr. Orcutt's literary style is heavy and as cold as the average westerner (erroneously) conceives a typical Bostonian to be. He knows his grammar, he understands the use of words, but he lacks that finesse and lightness of touch which are so essential to success in popular writing. His *In Quest of the perfect book* (1926) and *The Kingdom of books* (1927) are both marred in the same way.

From the point of view of book-building, to use Mr. Orcutt's own term, this volume is an interesting piece of work. It proves in a concrete, and perhaps unconscious, manner that he practices typographically what he preaches. It is printed in the quietly dignified Baskerville type, so well adapted to a learned, somewhat-stilted essay, written in the tradition of Dibdin, John Hill Burton, and Percy Fitzgerald. But it lacks the feeling of spontaneity which such a book should have. Baskerville type, beautiful as it is, is too cold, too classical in feeling, too learned in texture to convey to the reader who is sensitive to typographical achievement that lightness of style which bookly essays should have. In fact, Mr. Orcutt's personality is laid bare to the discerning reader through his choice of type, of format, and of binding—does he not say time and again that type should display the personality of the writer, the tone of the writing, the style, the general ensemble of the book? His book proves his point admirably. It is a well-made book, but it is cold, heavy, and somewhat ponderous. Even the dust wrapper, made of heavy, glazed, brown paper, carries out the idea.

GILBERT HARRY DOANE

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA

A Study of rare books, with special reference to colophons, press devices and title pages of interest to the bibliophile and the student of literature.

By NOLIE MUMEX. Denver: Clason Publishing Co., 1930. Pp. xvii + 572. 400 illus. \$15.

The author, a Denver physician and bibliophile, it is said, has devoted spare time for the past ten years to the preparation of this work. His publishers' announcement states that it is "like a personally conducted tour to the libraries of famous book collectors, a comprehensive study of books that are most valuable, a key to the marks of identification known and used by collectors, a scientific work written in popular language, a bibliographical text book for the library and the student, profusely illustrated." Truly it is an impres-

sive collection of title-page reproductions, but it falls considerably short of other claims.

It is neither a comprehensive nor a representative study of books that are most valuable. Though himself a physician, the author makes no attempt to deal with masterpieces in the history of science or of professional literature other than medical. The treatment of individual titles is not uniform and at times omits desirable bibliographical details.

As a key to marks of identification known and used by collectors it is keenly disappointing. "A study of rare books," we read in the Preface, "must necessarily deal with all marks of identification." While much space is devoted to title-pages and printers' devices, nothing whatever is said of the important researches of Bradshaw, Proctor, Claudin, and Haebler in typographical identification. None of these names appears in his Bibliography; indeed, not even the *Transactions of the Bibliographical Society* or the *Papers of the Bibliographical Society of America* are mentioned. Still another unpardonable omission is the *British Museum catalogue of books printed in the XVth century*. The text suggests that this source was not used.

The text is also unscientific both in organization and in accuracy of statement. For instance, separate sections are devoted to early printed books and to incunabula, with hornbooks sandwiched in between. We are informed that the earliest block prints were done in Japan; that a reproduction of the *Biblia pauperum* was issued in 1470 at Nördlingen by Walther and Hurning; that the first book printed in England was in 1468 at Oxford; that the Mainz *Catholicon* of 1460 has Gutenberg's name in the colophon; that *Firenze* is the Latin genitive for "Florence"; that "end-papers" and "flyleaves" are indistinguishable terms. These are a few of his statements, selected at random, of which the veracity is highly questionable.

A valuable bibliographical textbook for the library and the student might have been produced if Dr. Mumey had devoted himself exclusively and intensively to the study of first editions of British and American literary masterpieces. There is sound literary judgment in the selection of titles for this portion of the book. The descriptions, however, are unnecessarily brief and there is no attempt to carry investigations beyond secondary sources. If Dr. Mumey had done this, he might have more to say regarding spurious first editions and the pitfalls that lie in the path of the overcredulous book-collector.

LESTER CONDIT

GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Gesamtkatalog der Wiegendrucke. Band IV. Leipzig: Verlag von Karl W. Hiersemann, 1930.

British Museum catalogue of books printed in the XVth century. Part VI: *Italy: Foligno, Ferrara, Florence, Milan, Bologna, Naples, Perugia and Treviso.* London: Printed by order of the Trustees, 1930.

Gutenberg Jahrbuch 1930. Edited by A. RUPPEL. Mainz: Gutenberg Gesellschaft, 1930.

Prices of incunabula. By MAX SANDER. Milan: Ulrico Hoepli, 1930.

Die Typen der Inkunabelzeit. . . . By ERNST CONSENTIUS. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter & Co., 1929.

The critical equipment of the incunabulist has been notably strengthened by the publications of the past year. With its fourth volume, the *Gesamtkatalog* now extends through "Brentius" and includes the much-needed section on the Bible. The only novelty about the new volume is the appearance with it of our first separate sheets of *Ergänzungen und Verbesserungen*. These are supplied on loose leaves printed on one side only, which we are instructed to clip and paste in their proper places through the book. But one may be permitted to hesitate about obeying these instructions. For the first three volumes which list 4,077 incunabula 95 revised entries are now supplied for pasting. These alone will warp the volumes unpleasantly, particularly in the thin-paper edition, and who can tell how many more will be supplied in the course of the years? The safest course for the present will probably be to preserve these leaves in a portfolio and mark the margin for the corresponding entry with an "Er." or a "Vb."

Our welcome to the new volume of the *British Museum catalogue* was somewhat dampened when we discovered that this, like the Venice volume, contains no Hain index. Yet despite this lack we are delighted to have it, for it covers a field in which Proctor's results have perhaps been least satisfactory in many details. Mr. Scholderer, who compiled the volume, has made special studies of the Bologna, Milan, and Florence presses, and his identifications of unsigned imprints in this field may safely be considered definitive. For example, there is the identification of specimens from the press of Simon Magniacus at Milan, which Proctor was unable to do. The *Convivia* of Francesco Filelfo (Pr. 7268), and some other tracts ascribed by Proctor to the press at Casale di San Vaso of Antonio di Corsiona and Guglielmo de Canopanova, are shown by documentary evidence to have been printed at Milan, and the type, Mr. Scholderer finds, corresponds to one known to have been used by Magniacus.

There can be no doubt that in its yearbook series the Gutenberg Gesellschaft has established an international organ which is invaluable for students of typographical history. In this year's issue we have an assemblage of studies

which seems to the present reviewer to surpass even the high standards of the earlier numbers, but this, of course, may be a personal reaction. Yet it is certain that the papers by Audin, Zedler, and Haebler will become permanent units in the corpus of discussion of the invention problem.

But the real importance of this year's issue, for us Americans, is its inclusion of a supplement, containing a summary paraphrase in English of all of the papers. For those who do not read German this supplement may be very useful as well as at times amusing. The translator is very evidently lacking in some of the necessary qualifications for his office; repeatedly he translates German idioms into literal English and on occasion he is downright ungrammatical.

It is difficult to appraise a book like Mr. Sander's price list. For the dealer and for the active collector its immediate usefulness may justify its price of seven dollars and a half, but the annual depreciation on such a book is bound to be enormous. Within a year its guidance is incomplete, and within five years it may be positively misleading. Moreover, in its compression there must be omission of descriptive notes on the state of the copy priced, and a layman using it might easily arrive at astonishing evaluations. This is certainly not a book for anyone but the experienced specialist.

Consentius has given us a volume which might easily be overvalued as a contribution to incunabula studies, yet it is certainly a book which should not be undervalued. He points out the dangers of assuming that all the books printed in a given type must have been issued by the same printer. In refutation of this error he discusses competently and at length what data we have, which seem to indicate that commercial typesetting was established before the close of the century. What one cannot understand is the tone which Consentius takes in this discussion; he implies always a disapproval of Haebler's methods. Yet for his criticism he uses only the material supplied by Haebler, and he quotes Haebler's own words to show that Haebler himself was aware of the fallacy, and warned users of his *Repertorium* that it must be controlled for the later decades by other typographical discriminants.

PIERCE BUTLER

NEWBERRY LIBRARY

Higher education in America. Edited by RAYMOND A. KENT. With an Introduction by LOTUS D. COFFMAN. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1930. Pp. x+689. \$4.

Until very recent years the efforts of those interested in the advancement of a science of education were directed primarily toward the improvement of elementary and secondary schools. Higher institutions of learning received scant attention. Recently, however, colleges, universities, and technical schools have become the objects of the same type of critical analysis which had previously been applied to the lower schools. No longer are the character and

effectiveness of institutions of higher education the concern of a selected few. This broadened interest has been brought about in part by greatly increased enrolments and by the mounting cost of college education. Both taxpayer and philanthropist are demanding a more strict accounting of this great enterprise of college and university education, with its capital investments in excess of two billions of dollars and with its annual expenditures of one-half billion dollars. Higher education has assumed in recent years increased importance in the life of the nation.

The increased attention given to problems affecting the colleges and universities has manifested itself in a considerable number of journal articles, monographs, bulletins, and books. The most hopeful aspect of the present situation is that trained educators are giving increased consideration to the application of scientific methods to the solution of the problems of the college and university. A number of extensive surveys have been completed, statistical studies have been made, and the accumulated experiences of administrators have been recorded. There is need at the present stage of the development of higher education to summarize and clarify the points of view held by those working in the field. This result President Kent has attempted to accomplish in the volume *Higher education in America*.

The book includes contributions from twenty-three outstanding educators, including five college or university presidents, eleven deans or directors of university divisions, three university professors, two directors of research, and two representatives of the United States Department of Agriculture. The materials are organized under two major divisions, one devoted largely to instructional and curricular problems as related to the several schools and colleges which make up a modern American university, and the other dealing with general problems of organization, administration, and instruction.

Part I consists of twelve chapters, each written by a specialist, on twelve of the major divisions of instruction. Koos discusses the junior college; Charters, the college of liberal arts; True and Shinn, the school of agriculture; Marshall, the school of commerce; Gies, the school of dentistry; Judd, the school of education; Wichenden, the school of engineering; Butler, the fine arts; Pound, the school of law; Cutter, the school of medicine; Tufts, the graduate school; and Price, university extension.

Part II consists of ten chapters, as follows: "Selection of students," by Johnston; "The College curriculum," by Wilkins; "Student records and accounting," by Zook; "The Personnel department," by Howard; "Improvement of university instruction through educational research," by Haggerty; "Student health," by Sundwall; "Physical education and athletics," by Allen; "The Board of control," by Elliott; "The College or university budget," by Kelly; and "The Alumni," by Shaw.

Many significant trends are pointed out by the writers. Each has endeavored first to present in brief form the historical background necessary for an

intelligent attack upon the problems of the present. European influences upon college and university organization, the effects of the social, economic, and political development of the United States, and the vital contribution of the standardizing agencies—all are recognized as contributing to the development of American institutions. The reader learns that standards which have been set up in a more or less arbitrary manner by the several standardizing agencies which accredit institutions are now being seriously questioned, in some instances by those responsible for their enforcement. Scientific studies are under way to determine the validity of these standards. The aims and objectives of the several units of the educational system are being scrutinized, and the results achieved are being measured in terms of the goals set up. Institutions are experimenting with new methods of organization, and with new techniques of instruction. Educational scientists are applying measuring rods to discover the relative values of the new methods as compared with the old. Judd discusses the effects of the development of experimental psychology on education, and points out that a major obligation of departments of education is that of carrying on research. Wichenden reports the results of extensive research in the field of engineering education. Haggerty reviews a number of significant research investigations, and points out ways in which the findings are influencing educational practice.

A number of the writers stress the reorganization which is taking place in the educational system. Koos compares the development of the junior college with that of the liberal-arts college and points out that the junior college within a period of fifteen or twenty years has increased the count of its representatives to more than half the number of the four-year colleges and universities in the country, although the latter have three centuries of history back of them. Charters states that the college of liberal arts is no longer an independent unit. "Everywhere the college is a part of a larger educational agency whose function is to prepare students for life." Tufts states that "the graduate school is frequently merged with the college to such a degree as to prevent either the graduate school or the college from realizing its distinctive purpose." Wilkins analyzes the major fields of human interests and then subdivides them into groups of subjects to be taught in college.

The editor of the compilation has allowed the contributors considerable latitude in presenting their discussions. This adds originality to the presentations but at the same time results in some duplication of subject matter and in some omissions. To exemplify the duplications it may be pointed out that a considerable part of the chapter on the school of dentistry is devoted to a discussion of medical education and to an exposition of the reasons for the maintenance of a school of dentistry separate from a school of medicine. In the opinion of the reviewer, the chapter on dentistry gives a more satisfactory treatment of some of the major problems of medical education than does the chapter on medicine. Both the chapter entitled "The Personnel department"

and the one entitled "Selection of students" deal with problems of the admission of students. There is some overlapping in the chapters on "Student health" and "Physical education and athletics."

Particularly noticeable is the omission of any consideration of certain important topics such as the school of theology, the school of home economics, the school of pharmacy, the library school, and the university library. Possibly the latter omission is the most serious. The new educational movements are tending to increase markedly the importance of the library, and this unit deserves a special treatment in any general consideration of the problems of higher education.

The chapter on "Physical education and athletics" contains one of the least satisfactory treatments accorded any topic discussed. The reviewer cannot agree with the author of this chapter in his basic assumption that a major reason for the continuation of intercollegiate athletics on an extensive scale is the need for a source of financial support for physical education.

In addition to the subject matter presented in the several chapters each writer has prepared a bibliography of well-selected references dealing with his particular topic. The references which appear at the end of each chapter range in number from three to fifty-three. Unfortunately the volume lacks an Index.

The book will be of great service to the administrator who desires information in regard to present practices and trends in higher education. The brief, clear-cut treatment of so many important problems is well adapted to the needs of students of higher education who desire to make a rapid survey of the field. It is the opinion of the reviewer that this book is one of the most valuable of those which have appeared in higher education during recent years.

FLOYD W. REEVES

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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